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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this guide is to assist curriculum planners in local school districts as they develop and implement their own programs of study. The guide is written for several audiences, including: boards of education; district, school, and departmental administrators; curriculum committees; and classroom teachers. The guide begins with a brief overview of the social studies field and then introduces identifiable curriculum development tasks. Those tasks, described in Chapter 1, are the organizing principles upon which this guide is based. Following preliminary questions, establishing a rationale and evaluating the present program, curriculum developers will find cognitive and affective goals in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 introduces alternative designs for a scope and sequence that provide information for local curriculum decision making. Chapter 4 surveys a wide variety of social studies teaching techniques, followed in Chapter 5 by guidelines for the development or procurement of teaching materials. Methods to implement and evaluate the newly revised or designed curriculum conclude the development process in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 shows how the social studies curriculum development process can be used to address multiculturalism. Ten appendices are included, among them: "Statewide Educational Goals for Students 1991-1995"; "Teaching about Controversial Issues"; and "A Code of Ethics for the Social Studies Profession." (Author/DB)

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A GUIDE TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

SOCIAL STUDIES

So 023 287

STATE OF CONNECTICUT BOARD OF EDUCATION • 1992

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A GUIDE TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN SOCIAL STUDIES

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The document was reviewed by Salvatore J. Natoli, editor of *Social Education* and director of publications for the National Council for the Social Studies, and Bruce E. Tipple, president of Learning Designs, Inc.

Daniel W. Gregg
Consultant in Social Studies

FOREWORD

The State Board of Education's most fundamental commitment is to educational equity and excellence for all Connecticut students. The depth and richness of that commitment is thoughtfully, thoroughly and forcefully expressed in *Challenge for Excellence: Connecticut's Comprehensive Plan for Elementary, Secondary, Vocational, Career and Adult Education 1991-1995*. This series of curriculum guides, developed for the 1990s, represents an important element in the Board's efforts to achieve Goal VI of its Comprehensive Plan: To Improve the Quality of Instruction and Curriculum.

These books also are published to carry out the State Board's statutory responsibility to "prepare such courses of study and publish such curriculum guides . . . as it determines necessary to assist school districts to carry out the duties prescribed by law." The letter of the law which requires the Board to provide these materials is clear, and clearly important. More important, however, is the manner in which the Board embraces the task of meeting the spirit of the law.

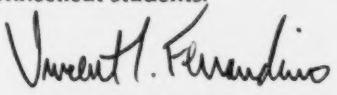
The Statewide Educational Goals for Students 1991-1995 (part of the Comprehensive Plan adopted by the State Board in April 1990) and *Connecticut's Common Core of Learning* (adopted in January 1987) together are the heart and soul of the achievement we envision for all Connecticut students. This vision can only become reality, however, at the district level through the creativity, talents and special understanding that local education professionals and citizens bring to the K-12 curriculum planning process. These curriculum guides are specifically designed to help districts develop state-of-the-art learning programs and opportunities in each of the 11 mandated curriculum areas: the arts; career education; consumer education; foreign language; health and safety; language arts; mathematics; physical education; science; social studies; and vocational education.

In these guides we have endeavored to present meaningful and up-to-date ideas consistent with the State Board's goals for public education. Central to this effort are the convictions that (1) all children can learn and are entitled to an appropriate education; (2) diversity is enriching to school systems and all students benefit from the opportunities that diversity affords; (3) no single method of instruction is adequate to meet the educational needs of all children; (4) schools share the responsibility to maximize the comprehensive development of students; (5) mastery of knowledge and the ability to manipulate ideas are essential to being productive citizens; and (6) schools are but one vehicle through which education can be fostered — the vital role families play in supporting student learning must be recognized and families and the public schools must cooperate effectively to maximize student achievement.

The Statewide Educational Goals for Students, *Connecticut's Common Core of Learning* and these curriculum guides describe what can and should happen in quality K-12 educational settings. This series seeks to firmly establish the principle that the individual student is the beneficiary of these curriculums. The State Board of Education's mission is to educate students to think, explore and apply a variety of knowledge in ways that reward them and that contribute to growth in our society.

The guides have been developed under the direction of subject-area specialists in the State Department of Education, with the assistance of advisory committee members chosen from schools, universities and, in some cases, other agencies or community groups. These individuals have brought to the task a rich variety of experience and a shared commitment to the education of Connecticut students. Procedures suggested in these guides, while strongly recommended, are optional; the content represents expert professional opinion rather than state requirements. (In cases where state statutes prescribe certain content, the appropriate statute is cited.)

It is our hope that these guides will be used as resources in an ongoing curriculum planning process that has as its focus the lifelong achievement and well-being of all Connecticut students.



Vincent L. Ferrandino
Commissioner of Education

PREFACE

The purpose of *A Guide to Curriculum Development in Social Studies* is to assist curriculum planners in local school districts as they develop and implement their own programs of study. Each social studies curriculum must provide students with an equal opportunity to receive a planned, ongoing and systematic program of suitable educational experiences.

The guide targets several constituencies. It is written for boards of education and for district, school and departmental administrators charged with the direction and management of overall educational responsibilities. But the guide is written primarily for curriculum committees and the classroom teachers who both sit on these committees and have the primary responsibility for effective social studies education.

The guide begins with a brief overview of the evolution of the social studies field and then introduces identifiable curriculum development tasks. Those tasks, described in Chapter 1, are the organizing principles upon which this guide is based. Following preliminary questions, establishing a rationale and evaluating the present program, curriculum developers will find cognitive and affective goals in Chaper 2. Chapter 3 introduces alternative designs for a scope and sequence that provide information for local curriculum decision making. Chapter 4 surveys a wide variety of social studies teaching techniques, followed in Chapter 5 by guidelines for the development or procurement of teaching materials. Methods to implement and evaluate the newly revised or designed curriculum conclude the development process in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 shows how the social studies curriculum development process can be used to address multiculturalism.

Students moving through our school systems face an increasingly interconnected and technology-oriented world. They need to be well grounded in the social studies in order to be prepared, knowledgeable and skilled citizens who will be productive and participate in our democratic system. There has never been a more critical need for our nation's youth to understand that our government must exist for the common good. The social studies curriculum is an important means to assist students in being knowledgeable of their rights and responsibilities as citizens. If this guide is useful in helping them to achieve this knowledge and these skills and attitudes toward themselves and their fellow citizens, then the goals of all those involved in the preparation of this document will have been realized.

DEFINITION AND PROCESS 1

"Democracy is messy. Those who want an orderly solution toy with democracy, that form of government beset with flaws but better than any of the alternatives. Those who assert that 'the people' can never be trusted with setting standards sing an arrogant, dangerous tune."
– Theodore R. Sizer

DEFINITION
Past is Prologue
Connecticut Requirements

CURRICULUM PROCESS
A Continual Process
Process Tasks
Evaluation of Existing Curriculum
Needs Assessment
A Rationale

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This chapter provides a foundation for the curriculum development process. It offers a working definition of social studies, stresses the interdisciplinary nature of the field and recaps major developments in the teaching of social studies. Preliminary but important steps in the development process follow, including instructions for readers who might have specific curriculum goals other than beginning anew.■

DEFINITION

Against a background of controversy and debate, implicit in the nature of social studies, the profession has struggled to articulate a definition for the field. The following working definition emerges:

> *Social studies* is the integration of knowledge and human experience for the purpose of citizenship education. Citizenship education implies both the protection of rights and responsibilities within the United States of America and within the larger human community, as well as a commitment to work effectively with diverse peoples and to accept differences in cultures, values and in responses to social issues.

The enormous challenge for professionals is to devise an appropriate enabling curriculum guide at the local level.

Social studies is one of the most important academic areas in the school curriculum for broadening student horizons, both intellectually and socially. Humanities and social science curriculums approach human interaction through the widest perspectives. Social studies stems from a thorough grounding in history and geography, which interrelate with the behavioral sciences of philosophy, economics, political science, anthropology, sociology and psychology, plus art, literature, music and religion. Because it is concerned with interactions between individuals and groups in both time and space, social studies can provide youth with the knowledge, values and skills necessary for future survival. Social studies seeks to prepare youth to be informed, humane, rational and participating citizens.■

Past is Prologue

People who develop or revise curriculum today can draw lessons from past educational development. Much of the present debate involves the relationships between the evolution of theoretical foundations of curriculum and the applied instructional materials used in the classroom – otherwise called scope and sequence. Scope and sequence refers to the range and order of the curriculum. Issues in scope and sequence are the battlefields on which educational decisions have been fought in the past and where they will be won or lost in the future.

The taproots of the social studies curriculum grow from the recommendations of the 1916 National Education Association (NEA) Committee on the Social Studies. That year an NEA report adopted a heavy history-oriented scope and sequence, but also reflected the strong hand of John Dewey's "functional" learning. The report stressed the need for "the cultivation of good citizenship" and offered the following scope and sequence for Grades 7-12:

- Grade 7, European History and Geography;
- Grade 8, United States History;
- Grade 9, Civics;
- Grade 10, European History;
- Grade 11, United States History; and
- Grade 12, Government or Problems of Democracy.

In contrast with earlier thinking, this 1916 scope and sequence began the move away from a history-dominated discipline toward a more functional, contemporary-centered approach. This model established the pattern for most of the social studies programs which exist today.

During the 1930s and 40s, the first systematic attempt to examine social studies objectives appeared in the volumes of the American Historical Association. A commission headed by Charles A. Beard reported that the fundamental purpose of the social studies was the creation of students "equipped with practical knowledge and inspired by ideals so that they can make their way and fulfill their mission in a changing society which is part of a world complex." The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), with James A. Michener as editor, published experimental scope and sequence curriculums which considered various alternatives to the citizenship theme. Traditional historians rebutted that the wayward trend in social studies neglected American history. United States historian Allan Nevins went so far as to label social studies curriculums "social slush."

The debate placed academic purists and social reconstructionists in opposite camps, but it fostered notable changes. Since the mid-1930s, Paul Hanna's model formulating the "expanded horizons" has become the standard for the elementary social studies curriculum. He initiated a K-6 social studies program which, for the

first time, clearly catered to the developmental stages of the child. Hanna's K-6 scope and sequence model included the following:

- Grade 1, Family and School;
- Grade 2, Neighborhood and Community;
- Grade 3, Local Communities: City and County;
- Grade 4, State;
- Grade 5, United States National Community; and
- Grade 6, World Communities.

Meanwhile, theories were advanced for students at a higher grade level. In the 1950s, some theorists called for reflective analysis based upon critical thinking. They argued that something was needed to break social studies out of the all-too-prevalent "life-adjustment box." Previously "closed areas" of our society would be examined, such as race relations, social class, sex and marriage.

The Soviet Union's launching of *Sputnik* in 1957 caused significant repercussions. Experts decried America's scientific unpreparedness and called for more rational inquiry in education. The "new social studies" attempted to meet the need with a curriculum that applied reflective analysis and the scientific method to the study of history and the social sciences. A dazzling array of curriculum projects resulted, and they received ample federal funding. By the mid-1960s, the Vietnam War and the civil rights movement pushed the nation to apply moral and social values to domestic and foreign policy. Rap sessions, mini-courses, values education and area studies became integral parts of the social studies curriculum.

The field of social studies was in an obvious state of disarray and needed direction. Educators were hearing a cry for the old "hickory stick" by the end of the 1970s: "back-to-basics," more discipline and greater accountability. Criticism reflected a backlash to the immediately preceding self-discovery curriculums. Detractors asked where all the fundamentals had gone, and why the teachers who upheld moral, religious and family values had disappeared. Those were basic to our national heritage, detractors charged.

Fragmentation within the field forced the National Council for the Social Studies into action. In 1979, NCSS published a sweeping statement on the essentials of a social studies curriculum (see Chapter 2), with points so widely accepted that they have since undergone only minimal revision. Three years later the NCSS board organized a task force to study and make recommendations for a social studies scope and sequence. That proposal laid important groundwork for the most thorough examination yet undertaken, a study which published three proposals for scope and sequence adopted by NCSS in 1989. Two other groups also engaged in attempts to provide new direction in scope and sequence: the Bradley Commission on Social Studies in the Schools in 1988, and the National Commission on the Social Studies in 1989 (see Chapter 3).

"Past is prologue," reads the motto over the National Archives in Washington, D.C., and this is appropriate for the development of curriculum guides. The field of social studies has strengthened a once strictly history curriculum with the social sciences to produce a functionally designed learning system that promotes citizenship in our democracy. Curriculum revision often reacts to social change, and it often moves from emphasis upon subject matter to social issues and individual development. Patterns of scope and sequence have fluctuated accordingly. The past reminds us that debate about social studies issues is healthy, indeed necessary, for curriculum development. Professional guidelines are essential. They draw upon social studies research and experience. Social studies continues to evolve within the parameters of scholarship and citizenship. Successful curriculum development will help to strengthen both.■

Connecticut Requirements

The State of Connecticut has established social studies requirements. Connecticut statutes mandate the teaching of "social studies, including but not limited to citizenship, economics, geography, government, and history." They further require "a program of United States history, including instruction in United States government at all levels, and in the duties, responsibilities and rights of United States citizenship. No student shall be graduated . . . who has not been found to be familiar with said subjects." As of 1988, every student in high school must – before graduation – successfully complete three years in the social studies (see Appendix A: Legislation).■

CURRICULUM PROCESS

The curriculum development process, like learning, is never ending. This is not to deny the indelible constancy of tradition, upon which the social studies field is based. But never-ending change, whether in the subject matter or the student population, necessitates constant reassessment. Intellectual data will prompt reassessment of a hypothesis just as the social, racial or economic complexion of the student body may necessitate new teaching goals, content and approaches.■

A Continual Process

Continual reassessment involves costly decisions. To tell a teacher that a written curriculum must continually undergo revision raises a safe assumption: the teacher will be handed the job. The routine practice is to mobilize tired teachers at day's end to confront a task which, if properly undertaken, will require firm administrative support, uninterrupted time, adequate resources and meaningful rewards. Teachers will have a stake in the outcome, but they probably will ignore the curriculum if they perceive it simply to be shallow showcase material. Too often, conventional curriculum guides are neither used, usable nor reliable indicators of what teachers really do in their classrooms. School board members at the opposite end of the spectrum may resist the notion of continuous revision in the belief that properly completed curriculum guides are too time consuming and costly.■

Process Tasks

The curriculum development process has eight specific tasks that will provide the organizing structure for this guide. Although the list appears linear, it can be entered at almost any point. The curriculum committee will need to study the tasks in order to determine where the district is on the continuum and, therefore, where to initiate the process.

Some committees may choose to begin revision of a generally satisfactory curriculum with the evaluation questionnaire cited in this chapter and then proceed to evaluation instruments (see Chapter 6). This approach will differ from developers primarily concerned with the local district's scope and sequence (see Chapter 3). Most committees will follow the tasks, and therefore this guide, as designed. The eight tasks and their respective chapters follow:

- evaluate existing curriculum, Chapter 1;
- assess needs, Chapter 1;
- develop a rationale, Chapter 1;
- identify goals, objectives and themes, Chapter 2;
- establish scope and sequence, Chapter 3;
- determine instructional approaches, Chapter 4;
- select instructional materials, Chapter 5; and
- implement and evaluate, Chapter 6.

An example of how to incorporate curriculum change is provided in Chapter 7.■

Evaluation of Existing Curriculum

Broad preliminary questions are likely to spark debate among curriculum developers. Questions should be designed to clarify each committee member's perceptions about the theoretical underpinnings of the social studies field. The following questions will serve as a starting point:

- Should the major social studies disciplines be considered as distinct disciplines or be integrated into a unified structure?
- Should cultural values be transmitted and inculcated or examined reflectively and evaluated critically?
- What should be the balance between acquisition of knowledge and application of social studies skills?
- What implications do new technologies have for the delivery, coverage and evaluation of social studies?

Committee members may wish to write down their own questions or verbalize them immediately; the sooner prejudices and hidden agendas are brought to light, the more quickly a committee can engage in the appointed task. Questions about developing an approach to student learning should arise early and be asked constantly. Questions such as those that follow go to the very heart of the process.

- How should students develop a knowledge base of key concepts, generalizations and content from the social studies?
- How should students develop an understanding of basic national values?
- How should students develop skills for living in a multicultural society?
- How should students become well informed about the issues and problems that face the local community, nation and world?
- How should students participate in a variety of learning experiences that explore their citizenship roles in the community, nation and world?
- How should students be prepared to participate actively in the democratic process?
- How should students choose activities that are important to their interests and needs?
- How should students be evaluated?

Challenge for Excellence: Connecticut's Comprehensive Plan for Elementary, Secondary, Vocational, Career

and Adult Education: A Policy Plan – 1991-1995 includes five statewide educational goals for students. Each of these goals (see Appendix B), if rephrased as student learning outcomes, also can constitute a model to evaluate a district's curriculum. Three alternative evaluation questionnaires can be found in Chapter 6.■

Needs Assessment

A needs assessment will help to identify special needs of the local community as well as those of the district's students, teachers and administrators. Needs assessment is a multifaceted process. *A Guide to Curriculum Development: Purposes, Practices and Procedures* (see current edition), published by the Connecticut State Board of Education, has more information about how to conduct a needs assessment. An adequate needs assessment has two very important purposes. First, it alerts school personnel and the community that curriculum change is being considered. Second, it guides the construction of a curriculum that will best meet the needs of all concerned groups. The four areas of a needs assessment include the following:

- examine both present and future student needs;
- explore teachers' perceptions of necessary change(s);
- invite community members to express views of what a district's social studies program should include; and
- solicit various interest groups for their ideas.■

A Rationale

A rationale gives focus, coherence and justification for devising a curriculum plan. The unpredictable flow of educational funding at local, state and national levels creates uncertainty at best and, at worst, a struggle for limited funds. The "back-to-basics" point of view perceives social studies within very narrow limits; that limited frame of reference can thwart the increasingly broad outlook that the discipline demands. Schools, and social studies programs in particular, become battlegrounds on which community groups clash over fundamental values.

A courageous, clearly written rationale will help strengthen the district's hand in arguing for diversity, equal representation of ideas and a global perspective. Ill-defined social studies programs are easy targets for special interest groups seeking to use the schools to promote their particular cause or viewpoint. Curriculum designers must defend their position that discussing controversial issues and studying different viewpoints are central to social studies.

The accompanying questionnaire, "Sample Rationale Evaluation," and its "Small Group Ranking of Statements" chart (see pages 6 and 7) will assist the committee in organizing its thoughts for a rationale. But it may be useful in other ways as well, such as rekindling philosophical discussions among all K-12 social studies teachers. Teachers ask for well-defended conceptual arguments from their students and should demand the same from themselves.

The curriculum development process has begun. The committee has evaluated the existing curriculum, assessed needs and developed a rationale. Now local social studies goals, objectives and themes can be established.■

(Sample Rationale Evaluation and Small Group Ranking of Statements appear on pages 6 and 7.)

Sample Rationale Evaluation

1. Rank the position from 1 to 6 in order of preference in the spaces provided in the left column.
2. With a small group of 5 to 7 individuals (colleagues, parents or students), combine the individual rankings on the following grid (page 7) and add the total for each statement.
3. Discuss statements about which there is agreement and disagreement. Can the areas of disagreement be resolved?
4. Use the areas of agreement to help construct a rationale for your social studies program.

_____ (a) The main purpose of social studies in the school curriculum is to help develop a just and humane society. It aims to produce students who act intelligently in addressing social problems and who become active workers for social justice in the context of democratic values.

_____ (b) The main purpose of the social studies in the school curriculum is to meet the ongoing needs of children and adolescents in a highly complex and rapidly changing society. The social studies program should aim to produce students with well-integrated personalities, strong self-concepts, and without undue anxiety and personal problems.

_____ (c) The main purpose of the social studies in the school curriculum is to keep alive the nation's and the world's historical record. It aims to develop students who will master the best of what has been written and said in the various fields that comprise the social studies.

_____ (d) The main purpose of the social studies in the school curriculum is to produce adults who are contributing members of society. It aims to develop individuals who become conscientious consumer-producers and law-abiding citizens.

_____ (e) The main purpose of the social studies in the school curriculum is the intellectual development of students. It aims to produce students who become independent learners, interested in studying human activities in more meaningful ways.

(f) _____

_____

From *A Guide To Curriculum Planning In Social Studies*, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986. Used with permission.

Small Group Ranking of Statements

Statement	Individual Rankings						Total
a							
b							
c							
d							
e							
f							

From *A Guide To Curriculum Planning In Social Studies*, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986. Used with permission.

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GOALS AND THEMES 2

"If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be."
– Thomas Jefferson

SOCIAL STUDIES GOALS
The Essentials of the Social Studies
NCSS Curriculum Guidelines

KNOWLEDGE
General Objectives
Specific Objectives
Organizing Content Knowledge

THINKING
Essential Skills for Social Studies
Inductive Strategy

VALUING
Connecticut's Common Core of Learning
Controversy

PARTICIPATING
Affective Objectives
Civic Participation

MAJOR THEMES
Cause and Effect
Citizenship
Community
Continuity and Change
Cultural Pluralism
Culture
Equal Opportunity
Freedom and Justice
Government and Authority
Human/Environmental Interaction
Human Rights
Independence/Interdependence
Scarcity and Choice
World Peace

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Four principal goals are essential to the field of social studies. Each raises a host of related issues which will affect how curriculum developers implement the goals in their programs. This chapter analyzes the four goals: knowledge, thinking, valuing and participating. The chapter also proposes unifying themes for the K-12 social studies program.■

SOCIAL STUDIES GOALS

If the social studies field accepts Thomas Jefferson's advice to "inform the people's discretion through instruction," an overall goal would be to adequately inform citizens to be capable decision makers and contributors to the enrichment of democracy. How can we best facilitate responsible and effective citizenship within democratic communities? Broadly construed, the question can be subdivided into four questions:

- What *knowledge* should the effective citizen have?
- What *skills* should the effective citizen possess?
- What *values* need the effective citizen hold?
- How should the effective citizen *participate* in community life?

The operative words in these open-ended questions are *knowledge, skills, values* and *participate*. Honest and well-intentioned people will have legitimately different ways of answering them. Moreover, each of the four can be applied to a variety of social studies issues, such as the role of history and the various social science disciplines; the interdisciplinary aspects of the humanities, the sciences and the arts; the use of controversial issues; and the degree of student participation. When curriculum developers apply questions about knowledge, skills, values and participation, they need not be reminded that a social studies curriculum is an unfinished agenda.

In 1980, the National Council for the Social Studies agreed upon a slightly revised version of its earlier "essentials" for the field. This statement (pages 10-12,) is printed in its entirety to provide maximum exposure to curriculum developers.■

The Essentials of the Social Studies

Citizen participation in public life is essential to the health of our democratic system. Effective social studies programs help prepare young people who can identify, understand and work to solve the problems that face our increasingly diverse nation and interdependent world. Organized according to a professionally designed scope and sequence, such programs:

1. Begin in preschool and continue throughout formal education and include a range of related electives at the secondary level.
2. Foster individual and cultural identity.
3. Include observation of and participation in the school and community as part of the curriculum.
4. Deal with critical issues and the world as it really is.
5. Prepare students to make decisions based on American principles.
6. Demand high standards of performance and measure student success by means that require more than the memorization of information.
7. Depend on innovative teachers broadly prepared in history, the humanities, the social sciences, educational theory and practice.
8. Involve community members as resources for program development and student involvement.
9. Lead to citizenship participation in public affairs.

In 1979, the National Council for the Social Studies joined with eleven other professional associations to reaffirm the value of a balanced education. We now enumerate the essentials of exemplary social studies programs. Such programs contribute not only to the development of students' capacity to read and compute, but also link knowledge and skills with an understanding of and commitment to democratic principles and their application.

From "Essentials of the Social Studies," *NCSS Tool Kit* (from "Essentials of Education Statement," 1980). National Council for the Social Studies, 1988. Used with permission.

Knowledge

Students need knowledge of the world at large and the world at hand, the worlds of individuals and the world of institutions, the world past, the world present and future. An exemplary social studies curriculum links information presented in the classroom with experiences gained by students through social and civic observation, analysis and participation.

Classroom instruction which relates content to information drawn from the media and from experience focuses on the following areas of knowledge:

- History and culture of our nation and the world
- Geography: physical, political, cultural and economic
- Government: theories, systems, structures and processes
- Economics: theories, systems, structures and processes
- Social institutions: the individual, the group, the community and the society
- Intergroup and interpersonal relationships
- Worldwide relationships of all sorts between and among nations, races, cultures and institutions

From this knowledge base, exemplary programs teach skills, concepts and generalizations that can help students understand the sweep of human affairs and ways of managing conflict consistent with democratic procedures.

Democratic Beliefs

Fundamental beliefs drawn from the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution with its Bill of Rights form the basic principles of our democratic constitutional order. Exemplary school programs do not indoctrinate students to accept these ideas blindly, but present knowledge about their historical derivation and contemporary application essential to understanding our society and its institutions. Not only should such ideas be discussed as they relate to the curriculum and to current affairs, they should also be mirrored by teachers in their classrooms and embodied in the school's daily operations.

These democratic beliefs depend upon such practices as due process, equal protection and civic participation, and are rooted in the concepts of:

- Justice
- Equality
- Responsibility
- Freedom
- Diversity
- Privacy

Thinking Skills

It is important that students connect knowledge with beliefs and action. To do that, thinking skills can be developed through constant systematic practice throughout the years of formal schooling. Fundamental to the goals of social studies education are those skills which help assure rational behavior in social settings.

In addition to strengthening reading and computation, there is a wide variety of thinking skills essential to the social studies which can be grouped into four major categories:

- **Data-Gathering Skills. Learning to:**
  - Acquire information by observation
  - Locate information from a variety of sources
  - Compile, organize and evaluate information
  - Extract and interpret information
  - Communicate orally and in writing
- **Intellectual Skills. Learning to:**
  - Compare things, ideas, events and situations on the basis of similarities and differences
  - Classify or group items in categories
  - Ask appropriate and searching questions

Draw conclusions or inferences from evidence
Arrive at general ideas
Make sensible predictions from generalizations

- **Decision-Making Skills. Learning to:**
  Consider alternative solutions
  Consider the consequences of each solution
  Make decisions and justify them in relationship to democratic principles
  Act, based on those decisions
- **Interpersonal Skills. Learning to:**
  See things from the point of view of others
  Understand one's own beliefs, feelings, abilities and shortcomings and how they affect relations with others
  Use group generalizations without stereotyping and arbitrarily classifying individuals
  Recognize value in individuals different from one's self and groups different from one's own
  Work effectively with others as a group member
  Give and receive constructive criticism
  Accept responsibility and respect the rights and property of others

Participation Skills

As a civic participant, the individual uses the knowledge, beliefs and skills learned in the school, the social studies classroom, the community and the family as the basis for action.

Connecting the classroom with the community provides many opportunities for students to learn the basic skills of participation, from observation to advocacy. To teach participation, social studies programs need to emphasize the following kinds of skills:

- Work effectively in groups – organizing, planning, making decisions, taking action
- Form coalitions of interest with other groups
- Persuade, compromise, bargain
- Practice patience and perseverance in working for one's goal
- Develop experience in cross-cultural situations

Civic Action

Social studies programs which combine the acquisition of knowledge and skills with an understanding of the application of democratic beliefs to life through practice at social participation represent an ideal professional standard. Working to achieve that ideal is vital to the future of our society. However, even if excellent programs of social studies education were in place, there would often remain a missing element – the will to take part in public affairs. Formal education led by creative and humane teachers can provide the knowledge, the tools, the commitment for a thoughtful consideration of issues and can even stimulate the desire to be active. But to achieve full participation, our diverse society must value and model involvement to emphasize for young people the merit of taking part in public life.■

From "Essentials of the Social Studies," *NCSS Tool Kit* (from "Essentials of Education Statement," 1980). National Council for the Social Studies, 1988. Used with permission.

NCSS Curriculum Guidelines

The NCSS "Curriculum Guidelines" (1980) can provide standards useful to curriculum developers before they consider knowledge, skills, values and participation separately. These are designed to assist in the measurement of programs and to suggest competencies that should be developed. Descriptive subheadings of the nine guidelines follow.

- The social studies program should be directly related to the age, maturity and concerns of students.
- The social studies program should deal with the real social world.

- The social studies program should draw from currently valid knowledge representative of human experience, culture and beliefs.
- Objectives should be thoughtfully selected and clearly stated in such form as to furnish direction to the program.
- Learning activities should engage the student directly and actively in the learning process.
- Strategies of instruction and learning activities should rely on a broad range of learning resources.
- The social studies program must facilitate the organization of experience.
- Evaluation should be useful, systematic, comprehensive and valid for the objectives of the program.
- Social studies education should receive vigorous support as a vital and responsible part of the school program.■

KNOWLEDGE

The basis of social studies is information. But information is one-dimensional, linear and fragmented unless learned within the context of a larger idea. Unlike isolated social studies facts, knowledge is useful since it shows relationships between different pieces of information. Knowledge is best related in theories and results from conceptualization and, as such, is the central goal for social studies. Wisdom applies information and knowledge to resolve human dilemmas and create dreams. Social studies information, knowledge and wisdom apply to three broad areas: United States studies, global studies and the social science disciplines. These broad areas are mentioned repeatedly in state and national guidelines for implementation at the local level.■

General Objectives

Helpful guidelines enable curriculum developers and teachers to determine a local district's cognitive goals. In 1978, the Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress (CAEP) cited the following goals in citizenship and social studies:

- have knowledge of local, state and United States history;
- have knowledge about the historical development and contributions of past and present civilizations;
- know the main structure, function and processes of all levels of United States government;
- have knowledge about the ideology and practices of different political systems;
- understand the nature of conflict among individuals, groups and nations and evaluate alternative methods of resolving conflict;
- recognize rights and liberties essential to a pluralistic society and how they are guaranteed;
- understand the duties and responsibilities of United States citizenship;
- understand that political opposition and special interest groups have a legitimate and important role in democratic society;
- have knowledge about the economic systems and economic behavior;
- have knowledge about the relationships between human beings and their physical environments and understand some of the consequences of their relationships;
- have knowledge about social organization and relationships between humans and their social environments and understand some of the consequences of these relationships;
- have knowledge about "cultural universals," such as needs for shelter, communication, family organization and religion, and recognize that needs are satisfied in different ways in various cultures;
- recognize that culture defines beliefs, values and institutions, and influences behavior; and
- demonstrate skill in locating, compiling and weighing the evidence and data necessary for clarifying issues and making decisions.

Five years later CAEP conducted testing across the state and then published the results. Shortcomings in the teaching of social studies included the lack of a global perspective, as well as certain areas of United States studies and the social sciences. CAEP's 1983 recommendations included the following:

- offer students a "global perspective" when presenting content in all social studies disciplines;
- teach students about the U.S. political and economic systems, with greater emphasis on comparisons with other systems;
- emphasize the personal relevance and modern-day implications of social studies concepts; and
- incorporate geography throughout the social studies curriculum.

In 1981 NCSS issued the following position statement on global education.

The social studies should emphasize:

- that the human experience is an increasingly globalized phenomenon in which people are constantly being influenced by transnational, cross-cultural, multicultural and multiethnic interactions;
- the variety of actors on the world stage;
- that humankind is an integral part of the world environment;
- the linkages between present social, political and ecological realities, and alternative futures; and
- citizen participation in world affairs.

A national report on global education from The Study Commission on Global Education made the following additional recommendations in 1987:

Two of the greatest changes affecting the nation today are:

1. the increasing internationalization of the world, and
2. the increasing diversification of this nation's population along racial, ethnic and cultural lines.

Curricular areas need to emphasize:

1. the interrelationship of physical, biological, economic and political systems;
2. world civilizations as they relate to our own;
3. the diversity of cultural patterns in the world and in the United States; and
4. training in policy analysis of domestic and international issues.

Recommendations include the following:

1. At the elementary level, students should study a variety of cultures at home and abroad.
2. Elementary students should become acquainted with at least two cultures, one of them non-European.
3. High schools should offer continuing study of the physical and cultural geography of the world.
4. States should support centers for developing curriculums on foreign cultures.

Adapted from *The United States Prepares for its Future: Global Perspectives in Education*, Global Perspectives in Education, Inc., 1987.

Social studies goals for the primary grades are substantially the same as those for social studies in general, but the context for achieving them is different. A major social studies goal for young children is developing a positive self-concept. Another is to acquire knowledge and explore the multiplicity of cultures within society and the world. The concept of time is difficult for young learners, but they do need a sense of the past in order to understand their heritage. Spatial relationships are equally difficult but important to establish.

Cognitive goals have been established for all high school graduates in *Connecticut's Common Core of Learning*. Adopted by the State Board of Education in 1987, the Common Core presents a broad array of outcomes for students in a variety of disciplines. Social studies curriculum developers will find the following specific student expectations in the Common Core:

Each graduating social studies student should be able to:

- recognize and analyze events, personalities, trends and beliefs that have shaped the history and culture of Connecticut, the United States and the world;
- demonstrate a knowledge of United States history and government and understand the duties, responsibilities and rights of United States citizenship;
- understand the basic concepts of economics;
- analyze and compare the political and economic beliefs and systems of the United States with those of other nations;
- apply major concepts drawn from the disciplines of history and the social sciences – anthropology, economics, geography, law and government, philosophy, political science, psychology and sociology – to hypothetical and real situations;
- demonstrate basic knowledge of world geography;

- apply critical thinking skills and knowledge from history and the social sciences to the decision-making process and the analysis of controversial issues in order to understand the present and anticipate the future;
- understand the roles played by various racial, ethnic and religious groups in developing the nation's pluralistic society; and
- appreciate the mutual dependence of all people in the world and understand that our lives are part of a global community joined by economic, social, cultural and civic concerns.■

Specific Objectives

Teachers and curriculum developers have a number of resources available for specific knowledge objectives. Some sources, such as the Illinois State Board of Education, list specific social studies objectives and activities. Other state curriculum publications provide specific cognitive objectives, questions and activities. Wisconsin's 1986 *Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies* is one such publication.

Professional organizations are important contacts as well. The Joint Council on Economic Education and the American Bar Association offer curriculum assistance. Publications of the National Council for the Social Studies, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the Social Science Education Consortium in Boulder, CO, may be useful. The annual Northeast Regional Conference on the Social Studies, the Connecticut Council for the Social Studies, and college and university curriculum libraries can be of assistance. Outside social studies consultants may be employed. The Connecticut State Department of Education's social studies consultant also is available for assistance. *Social Studies Update*, published three times during the academic year out of the state consultant's office, contains the latest curriculum resources and developments and teacher information. (See also Appendix C, Organizational Resources for Social Studies Education and Appendix D, Resources for Curriculum Planning.)■

Organizing Content Knowledge

In recent years, several areas within the social studies have created models for developing a fundamental knowledge base recommended for K-12 students. These knowledge-base models develop themes or concepts that can serve as guides for resource development, teacher planning and student assessment.

History

The Bradley Commission on History in Schools in 1988 published *Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools*, which identifies six vital themes and narratives essential for organizing K-12 instruction in history. These themes, which follow, are used to organize topics for studying American history, western civilization and world history.

Civilization, cultural diffusion and innovation. The evolution of human skills and the means of exerting power over nature and people. The rise, interaction and decline of successive centers of such skills and power. The cultural flowering of major civilizations in the arts, literature and thought. The role of social, religious and political patronage of the arts and learning. The importance of the city in different eras and places.

Human interaction with the environment. The relationships among geography, technology and culture, and their effects on economic, social and political developments. The choices made possible by climate, resources and location, and the effect of culture and human values on such choices. The gains and losses of technological change. The central role of agriculture. The effect of disease and disease fighting on plants, animals and human beings.

Values, beliefs, political ideas and institutions. The origins and spread of influential religions and ideologies. The evolution of political and social institutions, at various stages of industrial and commercial development. The interplay among ideas, material conditions, moral values and leadership, especially in the evolution of democratic societies. The tensions between the aspirations for freedom and security, for liberty and equality, for distinction and commonality, in human affairs.

Conflict and cooperation. The many and various causes of war, and of approaches to peacemaking and war prevention. Relations between domestic affairs and ways of dealing with the outside world. Contrasts between international conflict and cooperation, between isolation and interdependence. The consequences of war and peace for societies and their cultures.

Comparative history of major developments. The characteristics of revolutionary, reactionary, and reform periods across time and place. Imperialism, ancient and modern. Comparative instances of slavery and emancipation, feudalism and centralization, human successes and failures,

of wisdom and folly. Comparative elites and aristocracies; the role of family, wealth and merit. **Patterns of social and political interaction.** The changing patterns of class, ethnic, racial and gender structures and relations. Immigration, migration and social mobility. The effects of schooling. The new prominence of women, minorities and the common people in the study of history and their relation to political power and influential elites. The characteristics of multicultural societies; forces for unity and disunity.

From *Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools.*
Bradley Commission on History in Schools, 1988.
Used with permission of National Council for History in Schools, 26915 Westwood Road, Suite B-2, Westlake, OH 44145.

Geography

In 1984, the Association of American Geographers and National Council for Geographic Education published *Guidelines for Geographic Education*, a document designed to organize geographical understanding around the five central themes that follow.

Location: Position on the Earth's Surface. Absolute and relative location are two ways of describing the position of places on the Earth's surface. In many instances, it is important to identify absolute locations as precise points on the Earth. The coordinates of latitude and longitude are widely accepted and useful ways of portraying exact locations. Determining relative location – the position of one place with respect to other important places – is equally significant.
Place: Natural and Cultural Characteristics. All places on Earth have distinct natural and cultural characteristics that distinguish them from other places. The natural characteristics derive from geological, hydrological, atmospheric and biological processes that produce land forms, water bodies, climate, soils, natural vegetation and animal life. Human ideas and actions also shape the character of places which vary in population, composition, settlement patterns, architecture, kinds of economic and recreational activities, and transportation and communication networks. One place may also differ from another in the beliefs of people who live there, by their languages, and by their forms of economic, social and political organization. Taken together, the natural and human characteristics of places provide keys to identifying and interpreting simple and complex interrelations between people and their environments.
Relationships Within Places: Humans and Environments. All places on Earth have advantages and disadvantages for human settlement. High population densities have developed on flood plains, for example, where people could take advantage of level ground, fertile soils, water resources and opportunities for river transportation. By contrast, population densities are usually low in deserts. Yet flood plains are periodically subjected to severe damage, and some desert areas have been modified to support large population concentrations. People modify and adapt to natural settings in ways that reveal cultural values, economic and political circumstances and technological abilities. It is important to understand how such human-environment relationships develop and what the consequences are for people and the environment.
Movement: Humans Interacting on the Earth. Human beings are unevenly distributed across the face of the Earth. Some live on farms or in the country; others live in towns, villages or cities. Yet these people interact with each other; they travel from one place to another; communicate with each other; or rely upon products, information or ideas that come from beyond their immediate environments. The most visible evidence of the interaction of places are the transportation and communication lines that link different parts of a large country such as the United States, and interconnect virtually every part of the world. Interaction continues to change as transportation and communication technologies change.
Regions: How They Form and Change. The basic unit of geographic study, the region, is any area that displays unity in terms of selected criteria. Regions show the extent of political power, such as nations, provinces, countries or cities. Yet there are almost countless ways to define meaningful regions, depending on the issues and problems being considered. Some regions are defined by a single characteristic, such as their governmental unit, language group or type of landforms; others by the interplay of many complex features. The idea of regions is used as a tool to examine, define, describe, explain and analyze the human and natural environments. Thus, regions are convenient and manageable units upon which to build one's knowledge of the world. They provide a context for studying events in the past and present, and they can be

used as an intermediate step between one's knowledge of localities and the entire planet. Region is a way of organizing geographic information.

From *Guidelines for Geographic Education*. Association of American Geographers and National Council for Geographic Education, 1984. Used with permission.

Civic Education

In *CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education*, published in 1991 by the Center for Civic Education, three goals were outlined in order to promote the acquisition of knowledge and participation in our constitutional democracy. These goals, which are used to develop resource materials for study in the political process, follow.

Civic Virtue. To foster among citizens the development of those civic dispositions and commitments to fundamental values and principles required for competent and responsible citizenship.
Civic Participation. To develop among citizens the participatory skills required to monitor and influence the formulation, implementation, adjudication and enforcement of public policy, as well as to participate in voluntary efforts to solve neighborhood and community problems.
Civic Knowledge and Intellectual Skills. To provide citizens the knowledge and intellectual skills required to monitor and influence the formulation, implementation, adjudication and enforcement of public policy, as well as to participate in voluntary efforts to solve neighborhood and community problems.

Economics

In 1984, the Joint Council on Economic Education published the *Master Curriculum Guide in Economics: A Framework for Teaching the Basic Concepts*. Twenty-two economics concepts were identified as being essential for student economic literacy. These concepts, which follow, are now used extensively in most economics-related curriculum materials available to schools.

Fundamental Economic Concepts
- scarcity
- opportunity, cost and trade-offs
- productivity
- economic systems
- economic institutions and incentives
- exchange, money and interdependence

Microeconomic Concepts
- markets and prices
- supply and demand
- competition and market structure
- income distribution
- market failures
- the role of government

Macroeconomic Concepts
- gross national product
- aggregate supply
- aggregate demand
- unemployment
- inflation and deflation
- monetary policy
- fiscal policy

International Economic Concepts
- absolute and comparative advantages and barriers to trade
- balance of payments and exchange rates
- international aspects of growth and stability■

From *Master Curriculum Guide in Economics: A Framework For Teaching the Basic Concepts*. Joint Council on Economic Education, 1984. Used with permission.

THINKING

Thinking is the most fundamental of all social studies skills. It is a process for problem solving, decision making and conceptualizing. Critical thinking skills distinguish between verifiable facts and value claims, determine the credibility of a source, detect bias and determine the strength of an argument. Creative thinking skills deal with inventiveness, insightfulness and originality. Thinking skills relate to understanding time and spatial relationships by analyzing and interpreting history, the social sciences and the humanities. Thinking calls for an integrated skills network which includes all levels of Bloom's taxonomy.

Connecticut's Common Core of Learning (1987) sets a standard to which curriculum developers might relate content and skills. It does so for social studies with these words: "apply critical thinking skills and knowledge from history and the social sciences to the decision-making process and the analysis of controversial issues in order to understand the present and anticipate the future." Skills and competencies applicable to all disciplines –

including reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing and quantitative skills – are in the Common Core. These areas will help to provide the critical intellectual foundations for broader acquisition of knowledge.

The 1989 report of the NCSS Task Force on Scope and Sequence presents a revised sequential development of essential skills for systematic instruction and practice. These skills, which are reprinted with the permission of NCSS, appear on pages 19-22.■

Inductive Strategy

Recommendations for skill development from the 1982-83 Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress tests reinforce the importance of teaching problem solving and logical analysis. They also emphasize the importance of teaching cause and effect, interpretation over recitation, and interpretive reading skills for graphs, charts and tables. Thinking skills may be taught inductively or deductively, as a new skill or to practice ones previously taught. The following five-step process from Beyer (1987) illustrates an inductive strategy for introducing a thinking skill:

Step 1 Introduce the Skill
- State that learning the skill is today's objective.
- Give the skill a label or name.
- Give synonyms for the skill label.
- State a tentative or working definition.
- State ways the skill has been used:
  – in student's personal experiences,
  – in school activities,
  – in this course.
- Explain why the skill is useful and worth learning.

Step 2 Execute the Skill
- Students use the skill (as best one can) to accomplish a task.
- Work in pairs, triads or groups.
- Use subject matter familiar to students and appropriate to course (or, if necessary, from students' experience).

Step 3 Reflect on What was Done
- Students report what went on in their heads as they engaged in the skill.
- Identify the steps or rules used and sequence of each.
- Clarify the procedure and any criteria used.
- Focus on the skill and its attributes.

Step 4 Apply the Skill to New Data
- Students use what has been discussed about the skill to complete a second task.
- Work in pairs, triads or groups.
- Use subject matter appropriate to the course but in the same structure and media as in Step 2.

Step 5 Review the Skill
- Students report what they did in their heads as they applied the skill.
- Review the steps or procedures that seem to constitute the skill.
- Review the rules that direct use of the skill as well as when it is to be used.
- State the relationship of this skill to other skills.
- Review or revise the skill definition.
- State where the skill can be used in personal or out-of-school situations.■

From *Practical Strategies for the Teaching of Thinking*. Beyer, Barry K. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, Inc, 1987. Used with permission.

Essential Skills For Social Studies – NCSS

I. Skills Related To Acquiring Information

Note – Numbers at left relate to recommended emphasis as follows: 1, minimum/none; 2, some; 3, major; and 4, intense.

A. Reading Skills

K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	
				1. Comprehension
3	4	3	1	• Read to get literal meaning
1	4	3	2	• Use chapter and section headings, topic sentences and summary sentences to select main ideas
1	4	4	2	• Differentiate main and subordinate ideas
1	3	3	3	• Select passages that are pertinent to the topic studied
1	2	3	4	• Interpret what is read by drawing inferences
1	2	3	4	• Detect cause and effect relationships
1	2	3	4	• Distinguish between the fact and opinion; recognize propaganda
1	2	3	4	• Recognize author bias
3	3	3	2	• Use picture clues and picture captions to aid comprehension
1	2	3	4	• Use literature to enrich meaning
1	2	4	4	• Read for a variety of purposes: critically, analytically, to predict outcomes, to answer a question, to form an opinion, to skim for facts
1	2	3	4	• Read various forms of printed material: books, magazines, newspapers, directories, schedules, journals
				2. Vocabulary
4	4	2	2	• Use usual word attack skills: sight recognition, phonetic analysis, structural analysis
1	3	4	3	• Use context clues to gain meaning
1	4	3	3	• Use appropriate sources to gain meaning of essential terms and vocabulary: glossary, dictionary, text, word lists
1	4	4	3	• Recognize and understand an increasing number of social studies terms
				3. Rate of Reading
1	3	3	4	• Adjust speed of reading to suit purpose
1	3	3	3	• Adjust rate of reading to difficulty of the material

B. Study Skills

				1. Find information
1	3	2	2	• Use various parts of a book (index, table of contents, etc.)
1	3	2	1	• Use key words, letters on volumes, index and cross references to find information
1	2	2	3	• Evaluate sources of information – print, visual, electronic
1	2	3	3	• Use appropriate source of information
1	2	3	3	• Use the community as a resource
				2. Arrange Information in Usable Forms
1	2	3	3	• Make outline of topic
1	2	3	3	• Prepare summaries
1	2	3	2	• Make timelines
1	2	3	3	• Take notes
1	2	3	3	• Keep records

(continued)

K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	
1	2	3	3	• Use italics, marginal notes and footnotes
4	3	2	2	• Listen for information
4	3	3	2	• Follow directions
1	2	3	4	• Write reports and research papers
1	2	3	4	• Prepare a bibliography

C. Reference and Information Search Skills

1. The Library

2	2	3	3	• Use card catalog to locate books
1	2	3	3	• Use *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and other indexes
1	2	3	3	• Use COMCATS (Computer Catalog Service)
1	2	2	2	• Use public library telephone information service

2. Special References

1	1	2	3	• Almanacs
2	4	2	1	• Encyclopedias
2	4	2	1	• Dictionary
1	3	2	2	• Indexes
1	1	2	3	• Government publications
1	1	2	3	• Microfiche
1	2	3	3	• Periodicals
2	2	2	3	• News sources: newspapers, news magazines, TV, radio, videotapes, artifacts

3. Maps, Globes, Graphics

1	4	3	2	• Orient a map and note directions
1	3	4	2	• Locate places on map and globe
1	2	3	2	• Use scale and compute distances
1	2	3	4	• Interpret map symbols and visualize what they mean
1	2	2	2	• Compare maps and make inferences
1	1	3	3	• Express relative location
1	2	3	4	• Interpret graphs
1	2	3	4	• Detect bias in visual material
1	2	3	4	• Interpret social and political messages of cartoons
1	2	3	4	• Interpret history through artifacts

4. Community Resources

1	2	3	3	• Use sources of information in the community
1	2	3	3	• Conduct interviews of individuals in the community
1	2	3	3	• Use community newspapers

D. Technical Skills Unique to Electronic Devices

1. Computer

1	2	3	3	• Operate a computer using prepared instructional or reference programs
1	2	3	3	• Operate a computer to enter and retrieve information gathered from a variety of sources

2. Telephone and Television Information Networks

1	2	2	2	• Ability to access information through networks

(continued)

II. Skills Related To Organizing And Using Information

A. Thinking Skills

K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	
				1. Classify Information
1	2	3	3	• Identify relevant factual material
1	2	3	3	• Sense relationship between items of factual information
2	2	3	3	• Group data in categories according to appropriate criteria
2	2	3	3	• Place in proper sequence: (1) order of occurrence (2) order of importance
2	2	3	3	• Place data in tabular form: charts, graphs, illustrations
				2. Interpret Information
1	2	3	3	• State relationships between categories of information
1	2	3	4	• Note cause and effect relationships
1	2	3	4	• Draw inferences from factual material
1	2	3	4	• Predict likely outcomes based on factual information
1	2	3	4	• Recognize the value dimension of interpreting factual material
1	2	3	3	• Recognize instances in which more than one interpretation of factual material is valid
				3. Analyze Information
1	3	3	3	• Form a simple organization of key ideas related to a topic
1	2	3	3	• Separate a topic into major components according to appropriate criteria
1	2	3	3	• Examine critically relationships between and among elements of a topic
1	2	3	4	• Detect bias in data presented in various forms: graphics, tabular, visual, print
1	2	3	4	• Compare and contrast credibility of differing accounts of the same event
				4. Summarize Information
1	2	3	3	• Extract significant ideas from supporting, illustrative details
1	2	3	3	• Combine critical concepts into a statement of conclusions based on information
1	2	2	2	• Restate major ideas of a complex topic in concise form
1	2	3	4	• Form opinion based on critical examination of relevant information
1	2	3	4	• State hypotheses for further study
				5. Synthesize Information
1	2	3	3	• Propose a new plan of operation, create a new system, or devise a futuristic scheme based on available information
1	2	2	2	• Reinterpret events in terms of what *might* have happened, and show the likely effects on subsequent events
1	2	3	3	• Present visually (chart, graph, diagram, model, etc.) information extracted from print
1	1	2	3	• Prepare a research paper that requires a creative solution to a problem
1	4	4	4	• Communicate orally and in writing
				6. Evaluate Information
1	2	3	3	• Determine whether or not the information is pertinent to the topic
1	1	2	3	• Estimate the adequacy of the information

(continued)

K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	
1	1	2	3	• Test the validity of the information, using such criteria as source, objectivity, technical correctness, currency

B. Decision-Making Skills

3	3	2	1	• Identify a situation in which a decision is required
3	3	2	2	• Secure needed factual information relevant to making the decision
3	3	2	1	• Recognize the values implicit in the situation and the issues that flow from them
4	3	2	1	• Identify alternative courses of action and predict likely consequences of each
3	3	2	1	• Make decision based on the data obtained
4	3	2	1	• Take action to implement the decision

C. Metacognitive Skills

1	2	3	4	• Select an appropriate strategy to solve a problem
1	2	3	4	• Self-monitor one's thinking process

III. Skills Related To Interpersonal Relationships and Social Participation

A. Personal Skills

K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	
1	2	3	4	• Express personal convictions
1	2	3	3	• Communicate own beliefs, feelings and convictions
1	2	3	4	• Adjust own behavior to fit the dynamics of various groups and situations
1	2	3	3	• Recognize the mutual relationship between human beings in satisfying one another's needs

B. Group Interaction Skills

1	2	2	3	• Contribute to the development of a supportive climate in groups
3	3	3	3	• Participate in making rules and guidelines for group life
3	3	3	3	• Serve as a leader or follower
3	3	3	3	• Assist in setting goals for the group
1	2	3	3	• Participate in delegating duties, organizing, planning, making decisions and taking action in a group setting
2	2	3	3	• Participate in persuading, compromising, debating and negotiating in the resolution of conflicts and differences

C. Social and Political Participation Skills

1	2	3	4	• Keep informed on issues that affect society
1	2	3	4	• Identify situations in which social action is required
1	2	3	4	• Work individually or with others to decide on an appropriate course of action
1	2	3	4	• Work to influence those in positions of social power to strive for extensions of freedom, social justice and human rights
1	2	3	4	• Accept and fulfill social responsibilities associated with citizenship in a free society■

From "Essential Skills for Social Studies."
NCSS Task Force on Scope and Sequence, 1989.
Used with permission.

VALUING

The principles of democracy serve as the organizing values for social studies teaching and learning. Curriculum developers need to protect the sanctity of the classroom as the locale for the free exchange of ideas. As in the Ghanaian "palaver hut" and the Agora (the market place of the Athenian city state) classroom learning is maximized by an individual's need to know. And values are to be studied within time and spatial perspectives, cultural content and contemporary relevance.■

Connecticut's Common Core of Learning

Connecticut's Common Core of Learning identifies values that should be applied to specific subject matter. It states the importance of understanding roles played by various racial, ethnic and religious groups in developing the nation's pluralistic society. Moreover, graduating social studies students should appreciate the importance of a mutual interdependence of all people in the world. The Common Core includes the following attributes and attitudes for the social studies curriculum:

Positive Self-Concept. As part of education in Grades K-12, each student should be able to:

- appreciate his/her worth as a unique and capable individual and exhibit self-esteem;
- develop a sense of personal effectiveness and a belief in his/her ability to shape his/her future;
- develop an understanding of his/her strengths and weaknesses and the ability to maximize strengths and rectify or compensate for weaknesses.

Motivation and Persistence. As part of education in Grades K-12, each student should be able to:

- experience the pride of accomplishment that results from hard work and persistence;
- act through a desire to succeed rather than a fear of failure, while recognizing that failure is a part of everyone's experience;
- strive toward and take the risks necessary for accomplishing tasks and fulfilling personal ambitions.

Responsibility and Self-Reliance. As part of education in Grades K-12, each student should be able to:

- assume the primary responsibility for identifying his/her needs and setting reasonable goals;
- initiate actions and assume responsibility for the consequences of those actions;
- demonstrate dependability;
- demonstrate self-control.

Intellectual Curiosity. As part of education in Grades K-12, each student should be able to:

- demonstrate a questioning attitude, open-mindedness and curiosity;
- demonstrate independence of thought necessary for leadership and creativity;
- pursue lifelong learning.

Interpersonal Relations. As part of education in Grades K-12, each student should be able to:

- develop productive and satisfying relationships with others based upon mutual respect;
- develop a sensitivity to and an understanding of the needs, opinions, concerns and customs of others;
- participate actively in reaching group decisions;
- appreciate the roles and responsibilities of parents, children and families.

Sense of Community. As part of education in Grades K-12, each student should be able to:

- develop a sense of belonging to a group larger than friends, family and co-workers;
- develop an understanding of the importance of each individual to the improvement of the quality of life for all in the community;
- examine and assess the values, standards and traditions of the community;
- understand and appreciate his/her own historical and ethnic heritage, as well as that of others represented within the larger community.

Moral and Ethical Values. As part of education in Grades K-12, each student should be able to:

- recognize the necessity for moral and ethical conduct in a society;
- recognize that values affect choices and conflicts;
- develop personal criteria for making informed moral judgments and ethical decisions.■

Controversy

Values raise the issue of controversy. Controversial issues and studying different viewpoints are essential to social studies. The uneven evolution of social studies during this century speaks for itself, and the future promises more of the same.

The 1974 NCSS Position Statement on the Freedom to Teach and the Freedom to Learn declares:

> Ultimately, freedom to teach and to learn will exist only if a continuing effort is made to educate all Americans regarding these important freedoms. Professional educators must set an example in their communities that illustrates their respect for schools and classrooms as a free marketplace of ideas as well as an appreciation for the concerns of parents and other members of the community who legitimately disagree. By showing our faith as educators in the clash of opposing viewpoints, we can hope to achieve a society that functions according to this precept.

The Connecticut State Board of Education's 1978 policy statement, "Teaching About Controversial Issues," begins: "Learning to deal with controversial issues is one of the basic competencies all students should acquire" (see Appendix E). Subjects or questions which evoke significantly different opinions due to differing value systems are to be expected. Teachers should assist students to identify and evaluate relevant information and to make independent judgments.

The State Board further declared that academic freedom "is the freedom to teach and to learn," but that with freedom comes responsibility. Because public schools are a public trust, access to ideas and opportunities to consider materials may not be defined by the interests of a single viewpoint. Schools should teach *how* to think, not *what* to think, and that studying an idea does not mean endorsement of the idea. Classrooms are forums for inquiry, not for indoctrination. The State Board declared that local school boards should develop and make available their own written policies which support the state's concept of teaching about controversial issues.■

PARTICIPATING

Students can demonstrate that they have learned the essentials of social studies through various forms of participation. Affective objectives can be evaluated in the classroom forum, such as those agreed upon by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in its second assessment of citizenship and social studies in 1974. The NAEP affective objectives follow:

- Expresses awareness of some of the beliefs and values expressed by people and recognizes that the conditions, times and places in which people live influence their beliefs, values and behaviors.
- Develops the human relations skills necessary to communicate and work with others.
- Understands ways in which beliefs and values are transmitted in various cultures.
- Examines own beliefs and values and the interrelationships between and among beliefs, values and behavior.
- Expresses awareness of the characteristics that give one identity.
- Expresses awareness of one's goals (aspirations), the goals of the groups with which one identifies and the fit between those goals.
- Expresses awareness of the relative strengths of oneself and the groups with which one identifies and recognizes the societal barriers to full development that may exist.
- Assesses the extent to which one has control over the setting and achievement of personal goals in light of what one knows about oneself, the groups with which one identifies and the societal barriers to full development.
- Suggests ways of maximizing one's effectiveness.
- Displays an awareness of a quality of human life and an interest in ways in which the quality can be improved.
- Explains and supports rights and freedoms important in human development.
- Participates in family, school and community life on the basis of rational decisions involving one's own values and the conflict among these values.■

From *Social Studies Objectives, 2nd Assessment.* National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1974.

Civic Participation

In *CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education* (Center for Civic Education, 1991), the following commentary on civic participation is available:

> The ultimate goal of civic education is the widespread participation in the governance of the groups to which they belong by citizens who are knowledgeable, competent and committed to the realization of the fundamental values and principles of our constitutional democracy. The focus of civic education form the earliest grade levels should be to prepare students to take part in in the governance of groups beginning with their classes, schools and social groups and then, at appropriate levels, dealing with formal political institutions and processes. By the end of secondary school this education should have culminated specifically in the development among students of knowledge, skills and moral commitments required for responsible participation in monitoring and influencing public policy.
>
> To be consistent with the values and principles of constitutional democracy, the student's decision to participate must be freely made. It is typical of some authoritarian systems to demand participation in order to "legitimize" their powers and to penalize those who do not vote or adhere in other ways to their notions of the proper role of the subject. A constitutional democracy, on the other hand, must rely upon education and example to inspire participation, a task which clearly indicates the importance of the civic mission of our schools. Instructional programs based upon a civic education curriculum framework should inspire among students a commitment to participate in governance by:
>
> - providing the knowledge and skills required to participate effectively;
> - providing practical experience in participation designed to foster among students a sense of competence and efficacy; and
> - the development of an understanding of the importance of citizen participation.

Adapted with permission, *CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education*, p. 39. Copyright Center for Civic Education, 1991.

Effective social participation within the school, family and community is the long-term goal for a social studies education. While districts may choose to articulate this goal, they should provide as many opportunities as possible for students to experience democracy in action. Possibilities range from in-school interviews with community business figures, environmental experts and elected representatives to witnessing town meetings, lobbying at the state capitol or investigating an issue within the community.■

MAJOR THEMES

Today, many K-12 social studies teachers seek greater thematic unity, continuity and focus within the field. They feel the impact of the burgeoning information explosion upon social studies. They must "cover" increasingly larger amounts of material. Themes – which are more widely applicable organizing ideas than grade-level concepts such as imperialism, rebellion and transportation – can help provide the necessary intellectual continuity. They are the ideas we hope students will remember long afterward. The following major themes are proposed to unify and focus social studies teaching.■

Cause and Effect

All acts and events have causes and effects, but many times the consequences are unintentional. Social studies content, ranging from the multiple aspects of history to the interrelationship among the social sciences, rarely encounters examples of simple causation. Reliable cases of predictability are affected by social, economic, political or psychological factors. For example, causes of chattel slavery, the Civil War, World War I and the Holocaust are multifaceted.■

Citizenship

Citizenship is one of the principal goals for social studies. It involves the rights and responsibilities of a nation such as ours. Knowledge, skills, values and participation

involving citizenship need to be raised when studying our own nation within the context of the global community. Examples of relevant questions include the following: What traditions perpetuate the most effective qualities of good citizenship? How has cultural diversity affected the quality of citizenship in this republic over the years?■

Community

A community provides an identity, value structure, economic base and common governance for a group of people. Families, schools, jobs, places of worship, race and language help to mold close-knit relationships. For example, questions will arise about what criteria apply equally to such different communities as a nuclear family, sports team, town or the United Nations.■

Continuity and Change

Constants and variables interact to shape the lives of individuals, groups and national entities. All cultures maintain certain essential aspects of continuity. The pace of change, however, can range from slow and methodical to rapid. Discussions at all grade levels will depend upon the inherent conflicts which arise between continuity and change. For example, social studies students need to understand that peoples, events and ideas will constantly evolve and interact to affect each other.■

Cultural Pluralism

Cultural pluralism, the concept of people with differing values, traditions and languages living side-by-side, is a reality in this country. Each culture contributes its traditions, perspectives and beliefs to the whole society. For example, a rich United States heritage is expressed, defined and reinforced in this nation's differing music, literature and food. This diversity is a microcosm of the global community.■

Culture

Every human society has particular patterns of behaviors and beliefs that make up its culture and comprise the content of social studies. Students learn to recognize examples of nonmaterial culture: indigenous customs, social institutions, attitudes and language. They also see and touch the material culture which arises from the belief systems – artifacts such as tools, utensils, works of art and machinery. They learn how material and nonmaterial culture come together to serve human need, and they can do so with less likelihood of judgment or superiority than when studying comparative political systems.■

Equal Opportunity

Equal opportunity is one of the goals of a democratic system; the chance for individuals and groups to effectively function in society regardless of race, gender, belief or color. Social studies students need to understand the historical significance of these principles in order to be able to test and revise their attitudes. For example, students can evaluate the extent to which racism, sexism, bigotry, stereotyping and blind stubbornness might persist.■

Freedom and Justice

Freedom and justice are enjoyed by citizens of the United States. These include the freedoms to believe, think and act as individuals; the freedoms of religion, press, speech, assembly and petition; as well as the freedoms of inquiry, criticism and to receive a public education. Social studies is an academic field where vigilance should be encouraged to protect "equal justice under the law."■

Government and Authority

Governments are established to provide security and essential public services. Authority is legitimate power. Our federal democratic republic, guaranteed by a written constitution, succeeds or fails according to the elected representatives. How well social studies students shoulder those future responsibilities may depend upon challenges afforded them in class.■

Human/Environmental Interaction

The relationship of humans to their physical environments is critical to the quality of life. Social studies must provide the foundation for promoting responsible environmental attitudes and behaviors.■

Human Rights

Human rights pertain to an individual, group, nation or all people universally, and they arise from normative standards of civility, ethics and morality. Human rights raise many questions for social studies. For example, do human rights include the right to speak freely, to petition and to overthrow an unjust government?■

Independence and Interdependence

The conflict between a desire for independence and the reality of interdependence is a mixed blessing. The principle of specialization, characteristic of modern economic systems, inextricably binds nations together just as it does individuals, unions and corporations. Social studies discussions often will focus on this theme. For example, how independent and/or interdependent is a family within a community, town or state?■

Scarcity and Choice

Ongoing conflict exists between unlimited economic needs and limited natural and human resources. Goods and services are limited by available resources, forcing individuals and societies to continuously make choices. A balance must be struck between the concepts of scarcity and choice and those of sufficiency and sharing. Social studies students can deal with these economic questions at any grade level.■

World Peace

The tree of peace is rooted in justice, but justice according to whom? Wide differences of opinion exist on how best to attain peace. Some advocate peace through military strength. Others prefer to remove the causes of conflict. Conflict resolution raises probing questions, questions which social studies students should continue to ask.

This chapter has established the foundations upon which social studies professionals and administrators can devise or revise local goals related to knowledge, skills, values and participation. These themes may be applied to an individual social studies course or used to unify an entire district's social studies curriculum. Chapter 3 contains a discussion of how such issues should be integrated into a K-12 scope and sequence.■

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SCOPE AND SEQUENCE ALTERNATIVES 3

> *"Encounters over scope and sequence are the battlefields on which educational decisions are fought and won or lost."*
> – Thomas L. Dynneson and Richard E. Gross

FIVE ALTERNATIVE OPTIONS
Designing a Scope and Sequence
Global Education
NCSS 1983 Task Force Report
Building a History Curriculum
Charting a Course

MAKING THE DECISION
Student Intellectual Maturity
Student Interest Levels
Balance
Continuity
Importance
Community Resources
Teacher Resources
Time Allotment

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

This chapter will discuss scope and sequence, or the range and order of social studies courses for a K-12 curriculum. Chapter 1 reviewed the earliest scope and sequence, one proposed in 1916 by the National Education Association. Many districts are likely to discover that their own secondary programs roughly resemble that earlier scope and sequence, with geography at Grade 7, United States history at Grades 8 and 11, civics at Grade 9, European history at Grade 10 and problems of democracy at Grade 12. Likewise, the general patterns of an "expanding horizons" set for primary, elementary and intermediate grades articulated a few decades later still are widely accepted today. This chapter will present five alternatives to the traditional scope and sequence so that the local district either can initiate or alter its K-12 program in light of its new curriculum evaluation, needs assessment and goals.■

FIVE ALTERNATIVE OPTIONS

Virtually every school system in the country offers social studies. Whether by accident or design, the topics, skills and issues addressed in the K-12 social studies experience represent a range and order of subjects. When a district has allowed a program to evolve without a plan, its scope and sequence may make little sense. Scope and sequence frequently evolves from tradition – a K-6 textbook series, secondary school course textbooks and teacher expertise.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) does not have a nationally defined or research-based scope and sequence, nor does Connecticut mandate one of its own. Some would call for a single structure in order to unify the range and order of social studies throughout the state or nation. Few question the advantages for doing so on grounds of simplicity and uniformity. Standardized assessment would be more effective with increased accountability. However, most professionals reject a single scope and sequence for a variety of obvious reasons, not the least of which is the very social nature of the field described in earlier chapters.

Academic and classroom professionals are determined to come to more consensus. In December of 1986, NCSS devoted its entire issue of *Social Education* to viable alternatives for scope and sequence. The articles reflect the broad considerations involved in the debate about the optimum structure for teaching an intellectual field premised upon fostering democratic citizenship. This guide draws material from that publication and the NCSS 1983 Task Force Report with its own proposal for scope and sequence, in order to provide local school districts with five options – the best available thinking on the subject. The first alternative is the "1983 Task Force Report" and revisions recommended in 1988 by the NCSS Ad Hoc Committee on Scope and Sequence. "Designing a Scope and Sequence" and "Global Education" are models two and three.

A fourth alternative, a history-centered approach, is offered in both the California Department of Education's *History – Social Science Framework* (1988) and the Bradley Commission's *Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools* (1988). A scope and sequence design for the future – a fifth alternative – is suggested in the 1989 publication of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools, *Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century*.

To repeat an adaptation of Shakespearean logic noted in the opening article in *Social Education* (Nov./Dec. 1986), "The problem, Dear Brutus, may not be in our scope and sequences, but in our failure to stake out clear and achievable goals for the school area called social studies." While local curriculum developers may find solace in the fact that academic professionals themselves disagree on goals, they will recognize the importance of locally devised goals and the necessity to adapt them to local student needs.

The scope and sequence proposals have commonly shared goals. A local school district's social studies scope and sequence goals can be evaluated with the following criteria, using a scale from 1 (nonexistent) to 5 (very clear):

- a clear commitment to democratic values;
- a need for students to know, take pride in and be able to call upon their historical roots;
- a need for students to know the structure and function of their governing and economic institutions, and to be able to compare them to others;
- a need to engage in more active civic participation;
- a call for learning that commits students to active learning – social interaction; and
- a recognition of other cultures and the varying values systems that exist throughout the world.■

Designing A Scope And Sequence

Proponents of the "Designing A Scope and Sequence" view state that, because education must be defined within the context of a particular society, education is responsible for maintaining cultural heritage. The field of social studies has the major integrative function of maintaining that heritage and improving the individual and society.

This can only be accomplished effectively at the local level, where the majority of decisions about scope and sequence must be made. Under this proposal, the following major themes appear at each grade level, K-12 :

- cultural heritage
- global perspective
- politics/economics
- tradition and change
- social history
- spatial relationships
- social contracts
- technology
- peace/interdependence
- citizenship

The order for content in this model is less important than its currency and accuracy. The social studies curriculum is organized in the following pattern:

- Primary Grades (K-2): My Orientation to the World
- Intermediate Grades (3-5): Expanding My World Horizons
- Middle School Grades (6-8): Viewing the World from Different Perspectives
- Secondary Grades (9-12): Assuming Full Citizenship in a Changing World■

Above themes and model from "Designing A Scope and Sequence," *Social Education*, October 1989, pp. 388-398.

Global Education

Like the preceding alternative for a district's scope and sequence, suggestions for specific content by grade level in the global education curriculum are left to local planners. This curriculum enlarges the vision and meaning of citizenship beyond the local community, state and nation to the global community. It is based upon the reality that, because we live in an interdependent, multiboundary world, current and future problems no longer can be solved at a national level. And as citizens of one of the most dominant world powers, the nation's young people should be prepared to deal with pluralism, interdependence and change. The content for this design comes from history and the social sciences as well as the natural sciences, journalism and future studies.

This curriculum plan is based upon four essential elements that are organized around five conceptual themes and four persistent problem themes. These areas are outlined as follows:

Elements

- the study of systems
- the study of human values
- the study of persistent issues and problems
- the study of global history

Conceptual Themes

- interdependence
- change
- culture
- scarcity
- conflict

Persistent Problem Themes

- peace and security
- national/international development
- environmental problems
- human rights

The K-12 global education model is shown in Figure 1 on page 32.■

K-12 GLOBAL EDUCATION MODEL

Grade	Conceptual Theme	Persistent Problem Theme
K	All conceptual themes through socialization and structural play	
1	Interdependence and scarcity	Environmental problems
2	Change and culture	Development
3	Conflict	Peace and security
4	Culture and interdependence	Environmental problems
5	Interdependence, conflict and scarcity	Human rights
6	Change, culture, conflict and interdependence	Development

Grade	Content-Specific Study
7	Global systems
8	Human values
9	Historical and global interdependence
10	History of the United States and world
11	Modern world
12	contemporary global problems and issues/community participation

Figure 1

Adapted from "Social Studies within a Global Education." *Social Education*, October 1989, pp. 399-403.

NCSS 1983 Task Force Report

The third alternative is based upon several assumptions. Critical thinking is the major outcome of social studies and, therefore, that essential skill will be central to each grade level. All subject matter will be considered within a global frame of reference. All teachers share the responsibility for extending and refining skills. The skills are to be taught and applied at all grade levels. And teachers will be actively sensitive to socialization as well as social criticism – the dual and often-contradictory thrust of social studies. These skills will ensure the necessary socialization of citizens while fostering the spark of social criticism which keeps freedom alive.

This is the NCSS 1983 Task Force K-12 model:

- Kindergarten: Awareness of self in a social setting
- Grade 1: The individual in primary social groups: understanding school and family life
- Grade 2: Meeting basic needs in nearby social groups: the community, the neighborhood
- Grade 3: Sharing Earth-space with others: the community
- Grade 4: Human life in varied environments: the region
- Grade 5: People of the Americas: the United States and its close neighbors
- Grade 6: People and cultures: the eastern hemisphere
- Grade 7: A changing world of many nations: global view
- Grade 8: Building a strong and free nation: United States
- Grade 9: Systems that make a democratic society work: law, justice and economics
- Grade 10: Origins of major cultures: a world history
- Grade 11: The maturing of America: United States history
- Grade 12: One-year course or courses required; selection(s) to be made from the following:
  1. Issues and problems of modern society
  2. Introduction to the social sciences
  3. The arts in human society
  4. International area studies
  5. Social science electives

Adapted from "In Search of a Scope and Sequence for Social Studies." *Social Education*, October 1989, pp. 380-382.

Building A History Curriculum

The movement toward a history-centered curriculum came in response to widespread concern over a perceived inadequacy – both in quality and quantity – of the history taught in American elementary and secondary classrooms. Both the *History–Social Studies Framework* (California, 1988) and *Building a History Curriculum* (Bradley Commission, 1988) provide history-centered curriculums.

The Bradley Commission report offered three variations:

- a traditional expanding horizon with history as the primary focus;
- one connecting history, geography, biography, literature and the arts together with primary sources; and
- the California *History – Social Science Framework* that, with the following grade-level breakdown, offers an infusion of historical, literacy and biographical materials.

K – Learning and working now and long ago
1 – A child's place in time and space
2 – People who make a difference
3 – Continuity and change: local and national history
4 – A changing state
5 – United States history and geography: making a new nation
6 – World history and geography: ancient civilizations
7 – World history and geography to 1789
8 – United States history and geography to 1914

9 – Social studies electives
10 – World history, culture and geography since 1789
11 – United States history and geography, 20th century
12 – American government: social studies elective ■

Adapted from *Building A History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools*. Bradley Commission, 1988, pp. 16-21.

Charting A Course

The National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools was born out of the concern over a lack of synthesis in social studies and a lack of coherence in history, geography and the social studies at all levels. For the first time in more than 50 years, all major organizations and representatives of the concerned public sought to develop a consensus for direction in the social studies for the 21st century.

The proposed K-12 curriculum is based on developing a coexistence of increasing diversity and cherished tradition to cultivate participatory citizenship and encourage the growth of independent, knowledgeable young adults who will conduct their lives in accord with democratic principles and values. The following K-12 curriculum was proposed by the commission:

Grades K-3
- International perspective and multicultural experiences
- Citizenship/decision making
- Introduction of basic concepts drawn from social studies areas
- Examination of environments near and far away
- Development of the concept of community
- Stories about and descriptions of different types of people
- Geographic skills
- Heroes, heroines and common people
- Stimulation of children's imaginations to achieve a variety of human social experiences
- Integration of reading, mathematics and social studies
- Use of holidays to introduce ideas and customs

Grades 4-6
- One year each of United States history, world history and geography, taught in any order

Grades 7-8
- Two-year sequence of local community and a study of the nation

Grades 9-12
- World and American history and geography to 1750
- World and American history and geography, 1750-1900
- World and American history and geography since 1900
- Government/economics and other course options ■

Adapted from *Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century*. National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools, 1989.

MAKING THE DECISION

Before developing a new social studies scope and sequence, the curriculum development committee should examine the current one for strengths to be retained. Examination of commercial programs and scopes and sequences from other districts may be useful. The committee also should consider the importance of introducing a defined, coordinated program for all grades if such a program does not already exist. Several considerations should be included in the task of constructing the social studies scope and sequence.■

Student Intellectual Maturity

The committee should recognize the essential fact that students vary in their abilities to work with abstract concepts. Jean Piaget maintained that students progress developmentally from concrete to abstract, with a concomitant need for hands-on experiences in the early grades and for the less intellectually mature students at all grade levels.

Figure 2 (page 35) represents one mode of this progression. It represents experience modes used by students for symbolizing, observing and doing. Some modes are more concrete or abstract than others. These experience modes should be considered when developing student learning activities in the social studies content areas.

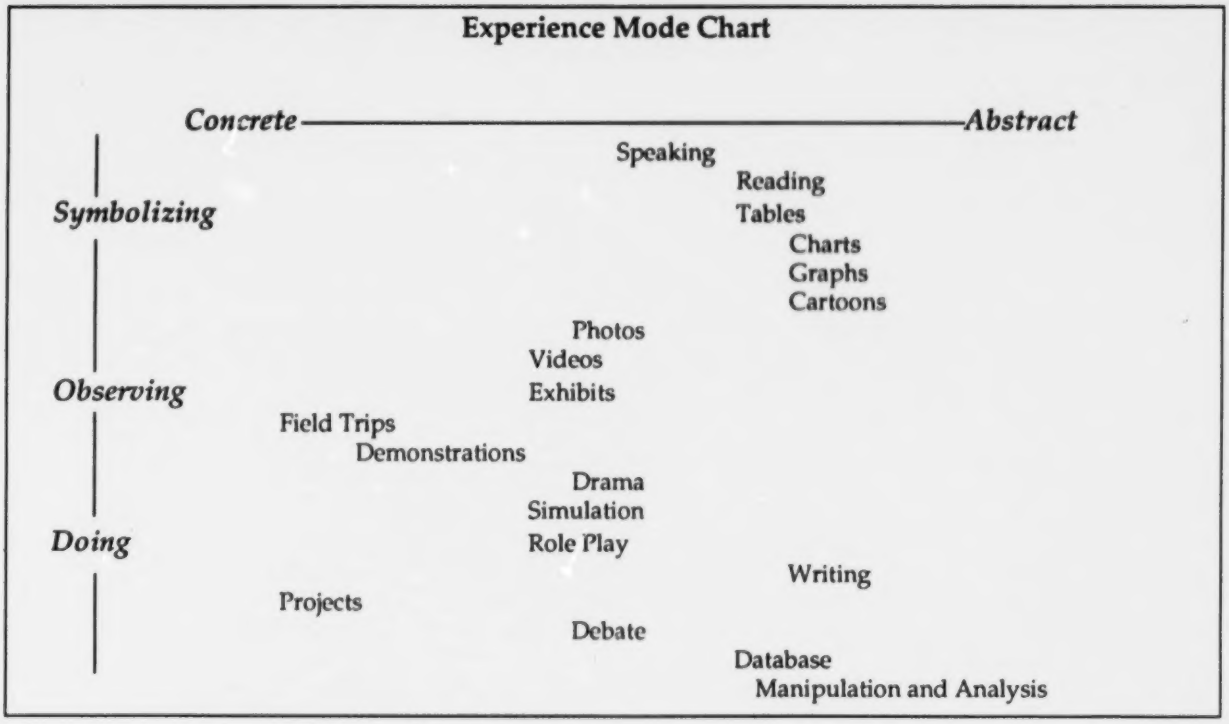

Figure 2

Jerome Bruner (1966) offers a slightly altered view of this model. Bruner maintains that, "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development." Students can understand abstract concepts at a very early age, although they may require concrete instructional techniques. A curriculum committee need not shy away from abstract content so long as instructional techniques and materials are available to help less mature students grasp the concepts.■

Student Interest Levels

Most topics can be made interesting to most students most of the time. A curriculum committee may identify student interests at each grade level. One way would be to give an interest inventory to a selected student sample and consider its results in developing the scope and sequence. The local community's needs and attitudes also can provide clues to student interests. As students become involved in community activities such as sports, scouting and the world of work, certain topics are more likely to attract their interest.

There also are psychological clues about what student interests might be. Erikson's stages of development (in Miller, 1976) have applicability for schooling, and these seem most pertinent:

- initiative versus guilt: child tests autonomy and begins realizing he or she is a person who can act and who can wonder what he or she will be (ages 4-7);
- industry versus inferiority: child tries to master some of the tools and techniques of the culture, developing feelings of competence if successful, or of inferiority if unsuccessful (ages 7-11); and
- identity versus identity diffusion: adolescent develops sense of self-concept and of future and expects recognition from the immediate community, or the adolescent does not relate successfully to the environment (ages 12-18).

Another model is designed primarily for elementary children. Hoffman and Ryan (in Miller, 1976) suggest four developmental stages to which a teacher might match appropriate learning. These stages are:

- initial exploratory stage – primarily preschool children exploring the physical and social environment;
- structured and dependent stage – preschool until about 10, dependent on adults and others to stimulate and structure what is done;
- structured independent stage – from 10 until early teens, some independent choices but environment determined by adults; and
- independent exploratory stage – adolescence (some elementary children reach it), chooses learning activities and develops alternatives.

Developers of the social studies scope and sequence may wish to take into account the stages of development described by Erikson and by Hoffman and Ryan.■

Balance

The committee must examine the content carefully for balance. The members must have, in Charles Keller's words, "the courage to omit." They might ask these questions:

- Does the K-12 program expose students to a wide range of cultures, issues, problems and geographic regions?
- Does the program include a broad range of social science and historical concepts?
- Are state and local history and government included at appropriate points in the curriculum?
- Does each grade level have assigned skills, values, experiences and social participation activities?
- Is there unnecessary repetition in the scope and sequence?■

Continuity

Curriculum developers should evaluate the scope and sequence to determine if it has a logical, integrated flow of knowledge, skills, values and participation. The committee need not debate endlessly whether a student needs to know latitude and longitude before studying life in Japan. The committee does, however, need to consider how each might be taught without knowledge of the other, and how teachers might build on a knowledge of one to teach the other. In short, a sequence is not inherently right or wrong. Planners must define a logical sequence that ensures continuity and uses previously learned knowledge and skills.■

Importance

Here the developers risk attracting the ire of every interest group, as well as the pressure to adopt what is currently in vogue. One test that can be applied is to ask how and when the topic, skill, concept or issue under discussion will be used in the students' future social studies experiences. If the information is not to be used in relationship to something more general and to build toward something else in the K-12 sequence, it probably is not important.■

Community Resources

Individual districts have unique resources which are of particular interest or importance to specific age groups. A local museum may have a staff that works especially well with young children. A local business may not permit tours until students are a certain age. In planning a social studies sequence, curriculum developers should place topics and activities at the levels that will allow the most advantageous use of local resources.■

Teacher Resources

The curriculum committee should consider staff strengths and weaknesses and should resolve the following questions:

- Is it worth altering a sequence drastically if teachers with known skills in certain topics will no longer be able to teach those topics?
- Should the grade level with the least-experienced staff be asked to make the greatest adjustment for the new social studies program?

If either answer is "yes," the committee should plan what assistance and support will be necessary to ensure the best results.■

Time Allotment

The Connecticut State Board of Education's *A Guide to Curriculum Development: Purposes, Practices and Procedures*

(see most current edition) discusses time allotments for the various content areas in terms of the total school program. The amount of time allotted to any one subject area is governed by a number of factors: the philosophy and goals of the district, the separateness or interdisciplinary role of the content area, the instructional needs of the students, and the scope and sequence.

Based on Connecticut's legal requirement that each student have at least 900 instructional hours per school year (180 days), or an average five-hour instructional day, the following time allotment is recommended for social studies:

- Grades 1 - 3, 75 to 150 minutes per week;
- Grades 4 - 6, 120 to 200 minutes per week; and
- Grades 7 - 12, five periods per week.

It must be remembered, however, that most primary teachers are teaching social studies throughout the day, for whenever they are dealing with social studies content in the reading lesson, with interpersonal relationships and with the students' adjustments to their peer groups, social studies learning should be taking place.

The scope and sequence is determined after consideration of what is best in the current curriculum, what is desired in the new curriculum and what local resources and constraints exist. The scope and sequence also must reflect the needs of all social studies students with their diverse intellectual and physical capabilities. After an appropriate scope and sequence is established, instructional techniques then must be considered.■

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INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES 4

> ***"Information is no substitute for thinking and thinking is no substitute for information. The dilemma is that there is never enough time to teach all the information that could usefully be taught."***
> **– Edward DeBono**

VARIED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Learning Activities Mix

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

Reading
Directed Discussion
Group Interaction
Cooperative Learning
Writing
Decision Making
Questioning
Conceptual Development
Drill and Lecture
Case Studies
Simulations
Role-Playing
Charting and Clustering
Affective Strategies
Independent Study
Technologies
Evaluation Flexibility
Objective Tests and Writing
Short- and Long-Term Evaluation
Assessment and Instruction
Mainstreaming

48 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Since a teacher's most critical role is to properly instruct students, effectiveness depends upon successful communication. This chapter considers a wide variety of approaches to communicate the diverse social studies content. While a small number of teachers always will be eminently successful in the traditional lecture mode, the vast majority will not. Today's subject matter, delivery systems and student populations need diverse instructional approaches.■

VARIED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The teacher's pivotal role ranges from being the dispenser of information to the facilitator for the discovery of meaning. That role is influenced by a number of variables. Diversity of students by sex, age, race, religion, language, emotional stability and intellectual ability means that standard instructional techniques may no longer be effective. Students' learning styles differ. Some students are predominantly visual learners, while others are auditory learners. Some may be concrete sequential objective learners, and others random abstract intuitive learners. Not all will come from backgrounds which respect uniform patterns of authority. Old expectations may not apply.

The following learning activities mix suggests how social studies can be enriched by offering variety. The activities reaffirm the advantages of presenting an idea in several ways. Weekly lesson plans, courses or units can effectively mix the learning styles of students. The learning activities mix is adapted from an unpublished work by James G. Lengel and is used with permission.■

Learning Activities Mix

We have known for a long time that people learn in different ways. We all enjoy variety, and pupils in school often need several embodiments of an idea in order to make sense out of it. As weekly lessons, courses or units are planned, teachers should try to mix the learning styles in which students participate. Here are some ideas to get you thinking:

Visual mode – symbols, pictures, cartoons, photographs, tables, charts, graphs, maps for interpretation, comparison, problem identification.

Original sources – written, or spoken; contemporary or ancient; the more detailed and concrete the better. Edit if necessary, but don't predigest it. The more controversial, the better. Get all sides of an issue.

Audio mode – tape recordings (actual or staged), speeches, plays, natural sounds; for analysis, transcription, identification of characters.

Project mode – constructing, painting, making collages, drawings, models, dioramas, recreations, reproductions, antiques, artifacts.

Advocacy mode – speeches, debates, role-playing, simulation, argument, mock trial; preparation, delivery, recording and analysis.

Writing mode – research, journals, simulated letters, news articles, speeches, stream-of-consciousness, plays and short stories.

Reading mode – secondary source (textbook), original sources, newspapers, letters, plays, advertisements, journals, records and lists.

Group-Work mode – small group decision making or arguing, simulation, team advocacy, group projects.

Manipulative mode – computer database analysis, simulation and video analysis.

At least five of these modes should be used each week so that a variety of learning styles is encountered. For example:

Monday – read background; visually examine maps of the area under study.

Tuesday – listen to an audiotape of a speech on the issue, begin group preparation of a debate.

Wednesday – read original accounts of the event; students write their own analysis of the situation.

Thursday – prepare group debate arguments; research needed data from books, graphs and tables; introduce computer analysis of data.

Friday – conduct debate; use dramatic photos to make a point; analyze debate points.

(Editor's Note: While descriptions would indicate a mix of activities appropriate for secondary school students, the variation of methods employed would be appropriate for all levels.)■

Adapted from unpublished work by
James G. Lengel. Used with permission.

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES

Curriculum developers and teachers will find that the following instructional approaches are suitable for varying ranges of students and content.■

Reading

Content-area teachers often assume erroneously that students comprehend reading assignments. One practical strategy to improve reading skills is the Framework to Guide Strategic Reading Behavior (see Appendix F). This thinking strategy prompts students to predict what the assignment will be, to absorb information as it is read; to reject or revise predictions, and to develop habits of testing predictions through reasoning. This practice helps students to set their own purposes for reading and to establish a dialogue with the author.

The more thoroughly teachers prepare students for the assigned reading, the more likely students will comprehend the material. Previewing the headings, italicized words and summary statements helps to establish the purpose for reading. Silent reading followed by discussion is a form of rereading the content. Analysis of the author's arguments calls upon critical thinking skills. Extension activities provide students with opportunities to incorporate new ideas (see Appendix F).■

Directed Discussion

Discussions permit the teacher to focus upon a designed intellectual task. The goal is to direct student thinking, to raise desired questions and to marshal specific information from students and resources. The degree of flexibility will depend upon the teacher. Questions such as those that follow often help teachers to structure the learning experiences toward convergent thinking.

- What is the purpose for the discussion?
- Is the topic worth thinking and talking about?
- Is the atmosphere free and respectful of student ideas?
- Do students have sufficient time to think about questions?
- Are students seated in ways that encourage interaction?

In contrast, open discussions permit students to express more freely their opinions about the topic. A discussion will raise questions students will want to ask, such as about the bias of sources, the roles of historical characters or why a topic makes no sense. Both teacher and student questions will channel the learning experience toward divergent thinking.■

Group Interaction

Group interaction serves many purposes: sharing work among students, developing social skills of cooperation and problem solving, stimulating discussion of diverse points of view, developing student responsibility, and organizing and acting on plans of action. Group interaction takes various forms, quite different from directed discussions. These include peer writing and editing, publication, collaborative learning, group research and projects, committee work, panel discussions, presentations and reports, dramatizations, and buzz groups or round-table discussions.

Interaction techniques may contribute to all four major social studies goals, not just social participation (others include knowing, thinking and valuing). And they take advantage of the wide diversity of students. All learners may profitably gain knowledge and develop respect for one anothers' abilities.■

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is a tightly structured form of group interaction. It creates an authority of peer group influence roughly comparable to democratic decision making. Teachers withdraw from center stage and listen to the language of learning. Students find meanings for themselves, not preordained teacher truths. The technique promotes social studies knowledge and participation while using skills and values. Learning becomes something people do and the groups become the center for learning. Student roles change as well. The technique cuts against student competition, intellectual hoarding, distrust of peers and passivity. It builds self-confidence and group interaction.

Concrete tasks, such as asking groups of four to five to discuss a controversial question raised by the text and to come to a conclusion, can help keep discussions on target. The task must be well planned, with a wide range of opinion and no clear right or wrong answers. Boredom and frustration set in if the assigned task is too complex. Teachers might wish to explore why Reconstruction of the Confederacy failed, how teenagers should respond to particular teenage-related legislation, or why unemployment for black teenagers is disproportionately higher than for white teenagers.■

Writing

For too long, social studies teachers have relegated writing only to testing what students have learned, rather than allowing writing to enhance the learning process. The writing process strengthens the learning process. It promotes thinking about content by encouraging students to write and revise thoughts on paper. Writing, like thinking, takes time. Meaning is rarely thought up and then written down. Rather, it evolves through revisions. It becomes focused and gains refinement. Peer editing through group interaction raises such issues as what the reader likes about the piece, what the reader hears the piece saying, and what the reader would like to know more about. Revising and editing strategies that involve students working together help to establish writing as a means to promote learning.

Writing assignments are limited only by imagination. Content from geography, sociology, anthropology and history can be taught through writing. Social studies writing techniques, such as those that commit students to establishing a voice and an audience, promote decision making (see Appendix G, Writing in the Social Studies).■

Decision Making

Decision-making techniques foster critical thinking. They arise from the inquiry approach: defining a problem, hypothesizing, testing, developing a conclusion and applying the conclusion to the data. The decisions may relate to intellectual, social, economic, political, historical or personal problems. Decision making engages all of the major social studies goals – knowing, thinking, valuing and participating. One model that can be applied to numerous social studies situations helps to teach students how to analyze before making a decision. Students compile a simple chart for each problem as shown in Figure 3 (Decision-Making Model). Another model (Figure 4), given in Thomas and Brubaker's *Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies* (1971), shows a variation of the inquiry approach.

Decision-Making Model

Problem	Options	Predicted Consequences	Choice
	1. 2. 3. 4.	a. b. c. d.	

Figure 3

Thomas and Brubaker Model

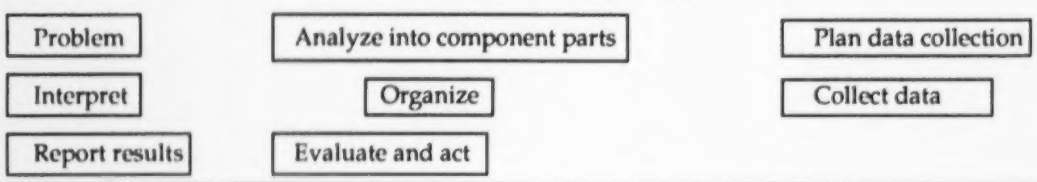

Figure 4

From *Decisions in Teaching Elementary Social Studies*, by Thomas and Brubaker, Wadsworth Publishing, 1971.

K-12 students make decisions every day, some of them much more complex than would be asked in class. The challenge is to present situations in the classroom that are sufficiently meaningful so decision-making skills might be applied elsewhere.■

Questioning

Socrates' emphasis upon questioning to seek truth and meaning sets the model for modern learning. In today's American classroom, as in the Athenian marketplace, learning is probed through a barrage of questions. Differences between classical Athens and today's American classroom need not hide the truth that probing unanswered questions is as basic to education as it was to the founding of the United States of America. The diversity of students in the classroom simply multiplies the diversity of questions that teachers must expect. Teachers need to ask questions at all cognitive levels and encourage students to do the same.

Questions have been proven to fulfill a variety of functions, some of which Wesley and Wronski, in *Teaching Social Studies in the High School* (1964), identify as follows:

- stimulate interest;
- supply incentives;
- emphasize important points;
- develop varied types of thinking;
- afford students with opportunities for interaction;
- establish relationships;
- organize content;
- ensure adequate interpretations;
- secure attention;
- present problems rhetorically;
- provide review and drill;
- discover errors and misunderstandings; and
- test the student.

Wesley and Wronski also suggest that the many different types of questions fall into categories such as the following:

- recall
- qualified recall
- comparison
- contrast
- evaluation
- cause
- effect
- illustration
- classification
- generalization
- definition
- proof
- description
- characterization
- relationship
- summary
- criticism
- application
- organization
- alternative
- analysis
- synthesis ■

Conceptual Development

The teaching of concepts helps students relate a vast amount of information to key ideas. Without this linkage, the information is little better than trivia that confuses and distracts meaningful education. Concepts enable students to compare, contrast, synthesize and evaluate content. Teachers can help students to build concepts at the concrete or abstract levels, with methods suggested by Fraenkel in *Helping Students Think and Value* (1973). Fraenkel suggests that methods for use by all types of students can be developed by:

- Listing question(s): What do you see?
- Grouping question(s): What items go together?
- Explaining question(s): When did you put them together?
- Labeling question(s): What do you call this group?
- Explaining question(s): Why did you give it that label?
- Recombining question(s): Can some of these belong in more than one group?

Fraenkel's teaching concepts would involve the following classroom instructional procedures. The teacher:

- states the concept;
- gives examples;
- gives nonexamples;
- asks for attributes;
- asks for definition;
- asks for identification; and
- asks for an original example.■

Drill and Lecture

Repetitive use of certain information or skills seems most appropriate for basic items necessary for all students. Possible examples might include basic political science terms, the names of the 50 states, the use of latitude and longitude or the development of cost-benefit tables. The teacher's challenge is to include necessary drill without boring the students. Repetitive exercises may be scattered throughout the year in order to ensure mastery, rather than bunching the exercises in a unit of work. Computers may be used for variety.

The lecture method is appropriate when the teacher wishes to give students a great deal of factual information or present differing interpretations from those available in writing. This oral presentation technique also may be useful to outside speakers, as well as class members whose expertise can be shared.■

Case Studies

The case study approach has been adapted successfully from law and business schools to the teaching of historic, economic, political, social and legal issues in social studies. Documentation of various sides of an issue is presented to students, guiding them to recognize the conflicting values, premises and interests involved. The discussion or role-playing that can develop serve to broaden understandings and clarify values. Case studies are useful in helping students to develop critical reading and thinking skills.

For students who have special needs, case study materials can be taped, presented in visual clips, or demonstrated by using maps and charts.■

Simulations

Simulations provide mechanisms for students to explore topics in formats that encourage thought, decision making and participation. They allow students to examine models of reality and to have the fun and excitement of participating in that reality. No simulation is worthwhile as a teaching tool, however, unless a careful debriefing takes place. As students examine what happened and what they learned in the activity, they clarify the experience.

With contemporary curricular pressures, a committee must consider certain questions before planning to use a simulation. These questions might include the following:

- How much time is involved for introduction? For play? For debriefing?
- How many students can participate?
- For what kinds of students is it suitable?
- What background information is required?
- What is the most appropriate classroom use?
- Is the simulation sufficiently valuable to justify the time involved?
- Is this the best way to achieve instructional goals?

If the responses are sufficiently positive, the simulation should be considered for inclusion in the curriculum.

Simulations often are useful with students having learning difficulties. Simulations require more verbal skill than reading, and they motivate students to participate and develop a sense of self-worth. In planning techniques for handling individual differences, therefore, simulations should receive serious consideration.■

Role-Playing

Developing a need for empathy and understanding of remote or abstract events can be modeled effectively through simple role-plays. The main characters and issues can be illuminated by assigning roles (with or without role cards), and describing a brief scenario. The acting out of roles within the context of the situation dramatizes the context of the event. This can clarify the facts of an event or the purposes of a process, or it can demonstrate value conflicts.

The best simulations often are structured role-plays. For example, law-related education makes extensive use of mock trials that provide participatory experiences for students while clarifying concepts. The mock United Nations sponsored by the World Affairs Center of Hartford is another example. These role-plays are more complex than those a teacher might devise but have the same learning potential.■

Charting and Clustering

Thoughts may be organized visually into charts and clusters to permit individuals or groups to gather and categorize information. This is particularly helpful in the development of thinking skills. Specific tasks include data retrieval, comparisons, relationships and organization. Figure 5 (page 45) gives two examples of charts.

Examples of Charting

Comparison Group	Homes	Tools	Weapons
American Indians	Longhouse	Stone Axe	Bow and Arrow
Settlers	Log Cabin	Adze	Gun

Invention	Consequence
Printing press	Spread of information

Figure 5

A variation of charting is the clustering or webbing technique. This can be used to illustrate graphically accumulated knowledge, or as a brainstorming technique to stimulate associative thinking. Discussions may begin by the teacher visually clustering thoughts on the chalkboard. Students may cluster thoughts as a prewriting device in order to decide the direction to take in a piece of writing. Unlike outlining, which makes assumptions about sequential mental order, the clustering shown in Figure 6 permits great flexibility.■

Example of Clustering

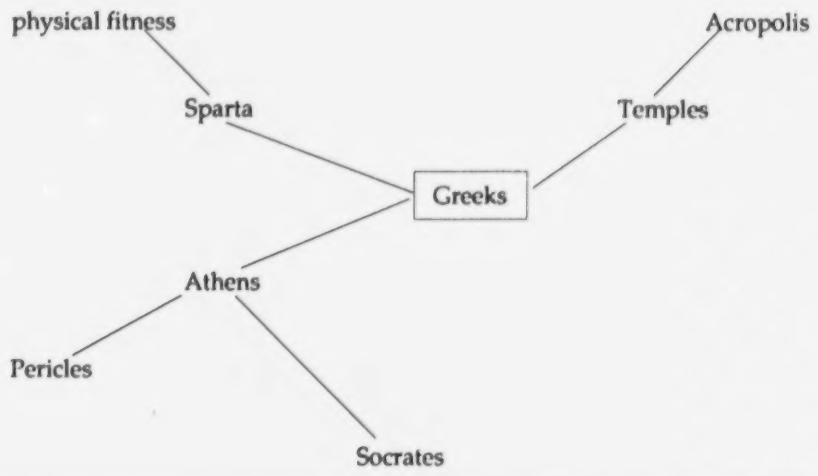

Figure 6

Affective Strategies

Social studies materials are value laden because the goals of democratic citizenship presume the internalization of a set of values. Intellectual freedom and democratic tolerance discourage direct indoctrination (see page 11, Democratic Beliefs, part of the NCSS "Essentials of the Social Studies"). Therefore, open examination of and confrontation with value conflicts characterize the most widely accepted social studies materials.

Values decision-making processes are available. A full explanation is found in "Values Education: Rationale, Strategies and Procedures," the *41st Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies* (1971). One model of the process includes the following components:

- identifying and clarifying the values question;
- assembling purported facts;
- assessing the truth of purported facts;
- clarifying the relevance of facts;
- arriving at a tentative values decision; and
- testing the values principle implied in the decision.■

Independent Study

This technique may take several forms, all of which give major responsibility to the learner for shaping how and what will be learned. Independent study includes projects, group work, research reports, community action and internships. Independent study usually extends over a period of days or weeks. Students receive guidance from teachers and/or consultants. Any independent study involves planning, setting purposes, gathering information and/or experience, reporting and assessing the results.

A more structured method of independent study has been developed for dealing with talented and underachieving students. Under this plan, students first decide how long they will spend on a curriculum topic or unit, thus controlling the element of time. Students then determine what materials they will use for their study. The next step allows students to sequence the materials and topics in the curriculum. This may involve the substitution of new topics for those included in the existing curriculum. Finally, students evaluate their own performance. This process is not always completed, but it does allow the students to take control over some measure of their instruction.■

Technologies

Integrating technology into classroom instruction is one of the most important initiatives in education today. Teachers and students are exploring exciting new learning approaches that recent developments in technology have made possible. Using a variety of technologies – from computers to interactive video to telecommunications – teachers and students engage in dialogue, exploration and experimentation with students around the world. Learning takes on a realism and significance not easily achieved via traditional methods.

A technology-integrated social studies curriculum is an enriched program of study that motivates and encourages excellence in students across all abilities, disciplines and grade levels. When technology is an integral part of the instructional program, it opens a wealth of learning opportunities in areas such as global education, cartography, multicultural education, culture and diversity, international relations, global issues, social and political change, and citizenship. Students can witness events as they happen or examine the historical record. They can tap into on-line sources for information from library media centers, television and media associations, political and social watch groups, research institutes and educational institutions.

To encourage innovative uses of technology in social studies instruction, educational publishers are producing multidisciplinary units which integrate printed texts, newspapers, computer software, videotapes, CD and laser videodisc materials, and other information sources into comprehensive, in-depth and effective presentations for classroom use. A useful tool for developing a technology-integrated instructional program is Connecticut's *Guide to Program Development in Learning Resources and Technology* (1991). As teachers and students become more comfortable with technology, they will be better prepared to face the challenges and opportunities of the 21st century. Chapter 5 will describe in greater detail the advances in technology and learning resouces available to teachers and students in the social studies.■

Evaluation Flexibility

Evaluation of student learning, whether by standardized testing or a teacher's observation, also is an instructional technique. Too often students perceive evaluation as destructive. If that impression recurs, students usually have good justification. Teachers, students might say, only look for mistakes. Teachers may find fault for

educationally valid reasons, but many are easy prey to the errors approach which they themselves were subjected to as students. Papers returned only with red ink that catalogs a litany of sins reinforce negative learning. Objective tests, not the answers, may fail as well. Those which only test short-term recall and are devoid of conceptual or thematic development may be justly criticized. Such tests are overused because they are easy to correct, easy to administer and save time.

Evaluation also need not occur only at the end of a unit when a test is taken, a project is due, a research paper is handed in or an oral presentation is completed. Social studies teachers at the intermediate and secondary levels, where the curriculum demands increased accountability, are prone to overlook continual assessment. But evaluation should be an ongoing process in classes K-12. Registry of student progress may be drawn from individual student verbal responses, individual or group conferences, participation and contributions during group interaction, agreed-upon criteria for written entries in students' thinking logs, and prequizzes or pretests. The traditional social studies emphasis upon product at the expense of process should be reconsidered if thinking skills, democratic values and social participation indeed are accepted social studies goals.

Other considerations also are important. Not all students' learning styles allow proper responses on objective or essay tests. Some have learning or language handicaps that require test modifications. This can be as simple as allowing a student to respond orally into a tape recorder or having test questions read to nonreaders. In the primary grades, oral reading of questions eliminates the reading variable. Modifications can be more complex, such as a set of alternatives from which students or teachers may choose. For example, students may be asked to demonstrate their mastery of an objective by taking a written test, completing an essay, producing a product, role-playing or by speaking out in a discussion. Flexibility in evaluation helps social studies students feel that they have some control and choice in assessment. An example of this flexibility from a high school course on China appears below.

Objective: To identify the chief characteristics of culture in the rural and urban areas of China.

Evaluation:

1. Pretend you are a magazine writer. Prepare an article titled: "Contrasting Lifestyles – the Rural and Urban Citizen." Or be the staff artist and prepare a series of sketches on the topic.
2. Make a chart on rural and urban life in China. Include comparisons of such aspects as food, housing, clothing, stores, education, transportation, communication, work, religion, culture and recreation.
3. Ask the following questions: What are the most significant aspects of culture in any society? How does rural life in China illustrate these attributes? How does urban life do so? Compare the two.
4. Work with a small group and prepare a mural which illustrates the key characteristics of life in the urban and rural areas of China.
5. Working with a small group, prepare a role-play that illustrates life in the rural and urban areas of China.

This plan will allow students to choose from among assessment alternatives the one best suited to their interests. A teacher-prepared objective test could be another option.

Student diversity also affects evaluation. Distinction needs to be made about the learning development from elementary through intermediate to high school. Assessment of primary students' achievement should be structured differently from that of older students. These students should have tests that are primarily pictorial or graphic in nature. Questions should be read or taped to eliminate any reading difficulty. Observational methods often are more appropriate than the typical paper-and-pencil tests. In assessing social studies, teachers and curriculum developers should be very careful not to make the instruments tests of reading skills. As children progress in language abilities, more formal tests can be given. Secondary school students can use both objective and essay testing and other forms of assessment.

Curriculum developers should consider how teachers at all levels will assess students with limited academic abilities or with special needs. Options include visual tests, including pictures or other graphics, observation scales and checklists, and tape-recorded tests. Conceptual-level testing as well as performance-based testing should be done. Adjustments in the testing structure for students with special language needs will develop more accurate social studies achievement results. The key factor in developing an evaluation plan for these students should be how to determine what they know in social studies without allowing their skills or needs to handicap their performance in any way.■

Objective Tests and Writing

Objective tests and essays originally were the major methods to gather information in order to assess social studies achievement. Objective tests still maintain a significant place in testing students. Traditional true or false, multiple choice, completion and matching tests are used to assess student comprehension of facts. Items should be constructed carefully in order to assess how well students are meeting a course's listed objectives. Objective tests are limited, however, and other forms of testing that are performance based or that develop portfolios should be considered (see Chapter 6). Tests constructed to demonstrate how well students are achieving objectives are called criterion-referenced measures. They provide excellent feedback for students, teachers, parents and administrators, if properly constructed.

Objective testing also can be used in new ways, and since social studies instruction frequently is structured around concepts, test items can be constructed to determine the level of students' conceptual development. For example:

- Given the name of a concept, the student can select examples of it.
- Given the name of a concept, the student can select nonexamples of it.
- Given an example of a concept, the student can select its name.
- Given the name of an attribute of a concept, the student can select examples of that attribute.
- Given an example of an attribute of a concept, the student can select the name of the attribute.
- Given a concept, the student can select a relevant attribute.
- Given a concept, the student can select an irrelevant attribute.
- Given the definition of a concept, the student can select its name.
- Given two concepts, the student can select the relationship between them.

This schema, adapted from Klausmeier's *Conceptual Learning and Development: A Cognitive View* (1974), shows increasing complexity of conceptual development ending with the stage of making generalizations.

The means to evaluate student learning through writing no longer are restricted to essay tests, although these traditionally have served as the standard writing format to evaluate learning. Student thinking on paper also may be tested by the options suggested in Figure 3 on page 42. The objectives for written testing will determine the best way to evaluate content, communication skills, conceptual development, values and attitudes, and decision-making skills.

Resources are available to provide assistance in test item construction. Among them are the publications of the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), which include both objective and essay items for United States history, world history and critical thinking skills. Publishers often provide tests to be used in conjunction with their programs, and some national and state assessment items are available. Publications by the National Writing Project, Connecticut Writing Project and other regional writing programs also will provide assistance.■

Short- and Long-Term Evaluation

Social studies evaluation occurs both in the short term and long term. In the short term, teacher-devised instruments are used most frequently. They can reflect accurately the current learning objectives. They may be supplemented by published tests when these closely match the program's stated objectives. In the long term, secondary students' achievement often is evaluated with formal examinations. These are either teacher prepared or publisher developed. In some cases, such as United States history or government, standardized tests are used. Students at both elementary and secondary levels frequently take achievement tests as part of a school's overall evaluation program.

The use of standardized tests to examine student achievement and to evaluate program effectiveness needs to be considered carefully. In social studies, these tests usually explore areas such as map, globe and reference skills. They do not effectively test conceptual development or the content of local social studies programs. The wide variance in local curriculums makes this impossible. Using the social studies subtest of a standardized achievement test battery can waste district funds. Careful examination usually reveals little or no correlation between what is being tested and what is being taught. The resulting comparisons, therefore, do not determine how well students perform in terms of a national standard.

There are other forms of long-term evaluation. The *Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress* (CAEP) has, in the past, been used to assess the citizenship and social studies skills of a selected population at specific grade levels. Likewise, this measure can provide longitudinal data on social studies achievement. This is a criterion-referenced measure in which students are expected to achieve at certain levels for each objective. The objectives tested are designed specifically for Connecticut.■

Assessment and Instruction

Student assessment increasingly is being viewed as a means to improve instruction. The problem with traditional standardized tests is that they often are removed from real-life situations. Authentic assessment is the new standard being introduced to link assessment with improvement in instruction and learning. Walter Parker (1991) provides the following "attributes of authentic benchmark assessments:"

- Tasks go to the heart of essential learnings, i.e., they ask for exhibitions of understandings and abilities that matter.
- Tasks resemble interdisciplinary real-life challenges, not schoolish busywork that is artificially neat, fragmented and easy to grade.
- Tasks are standard-setting; they point students toward higher, richer levels of knowing.
- Tasks are worth striving toward and practicing for.
- Tasks are known to students well in advance.
- Tasks are few in number; hence, they are representative.
- Tasks strike teachers as worth the trouble.
- Tasks generally involve a higher-order challenge – a challenge for which students have to go beyond the routine use of previously learned information.
- All tasks are attempted by all students.

From *Renewing the Social Studies Curriculum* by Walter C. Parker, 1991. Used with permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

A different approach to assessment requires developing "thoughtful classrooms" – classrooms that allow in-depth study for students to develop complex understandings. To create these "thoughtful classrooms," Fred Newmann (1988) offers the following dimensions:

- a few topics are examined in depth rather than many topics covered superficially;
- lessons have substantial coherence and continuity;
- students are given time to think – to prepare responses to questions;
- the teacher asks challenging questions and structures challenging tasks;
- the teacher is a model of thoughtfulness; and
- students offer explanations and reasons for their conclusions.

Adapted from "Can Depth Replace Coverage in the High School Curriculum," by Fred M. Newman, *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1988.

In this era of accountability, assessment increasingly is being considered as the means to educational reform. Authentic assessment and "thoughtful classrooms" provide the approach that can verify and create an environment conducive to student learning.■

Mainstreaming

All instructional approaches are affected by mainstreaming. Laws that require access to an education that is as nearly "normal" as possible have given rise to this concept. Mainstreaming helps to avoid detrimental effects to the self-concept of the child. It requires that all students have access to the wide range of educational materials and it can contribute a special view or outlook to a peer group.

Mainstreaming has various implications for teaching social studies. The particular disability will determine the nature of support needed. Mobility disabilities may limit certain types of investigations, such as field trips, plus some simulations and role-playing. The use of concrete materials for students with motor dysfunctions may call for some creative adjustment. Visual and hearing impairments may require the taping or reading of materials. Interpretations of charts and photographs may be more difficult. Hearing aids and "phonic ears" may assist hearing-impaired students where sign language is not practiced. Students with learning disabilities often need one-to-one tutoring, as advised by the learning disability specialist. Task modification and alternative modes of instruction may help to relieve the pressure on a struggling student.

A curriculum requires appropriate instructional approaches and programming for a wide range of K-12 students. Strategies that are selected will depend upon local student diversity plus the level of developmental learning. Instructional techniques also are influenced by the social studies content and student materials. Chapter 5 deals with the development and selection of these instructional materials.■

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INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS 5

"... the ten-pound clunker (textbook) with a cover like a coffee-table book has become nearly immortal, in an era of cheap paperbacks and electronic printing that can easily modify text and print short runs on demand."
– Harriet Tyson-Bernstein and Arthur Woodward

Examination and Evaluation
Locally Designed Materials
Criteria for Selection
Survey and Decision

TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES
Computers
Drill and Practice
Tutorials
Simulations
Word Processing
Databases
Desktop Publishing
Video
Telecommunications
Interactive Videodiscs
Nonprint Materials
Library Media Resources

60
BEST COPY AVAILABLE

This chapter will provide teachers and curriculum planners with guidelines about the development of locally designed materials and the selection of commercially distributed print and nonprint materials. Here the issue is a rich diversity of instructional materials to enhance the varied teaching techniques discussed in Chapter 4.■

Examination and Evaluation

Inaccuracies and stereotypes persist in humanities, social science and history materials. Bland textbooks remain as well, and they still conjure up anger and confusion from a diverse student population which justly criticizes them for irrelevance and insensitivity. These familiar problems provide one of the strongest reasons for developing an alternative approach to diversifying instructional materials.

Published materials need to be evaluated for stereotypes, and care should be used to eliminate stereotypes in materials produced locally. While publishers have made obvious improvement in eliminating gender stereotypes, these clearly persist in some published educational materials and should be analyzed using accepted guidelines.

A first step toward determining the degree of gender stereotyping is the use of guidelines based upon the following criteria adapted from Patton's *Improving the Use of Social Studies Textbooks* (1980):

- portrayal of females in passive settings, while males are portrayed in vigorous activities;
- use of masculine language to describe hypothetical persons;
- female interests characterized as self, home and school, while male interests are characterized as the community and world;
- disproportionate coverage of male roles and problems as compared to the roles and problems of females;
- males portrayed as main characters or exemplary persons disproportionately to females as main characters or exemplary persons;
- males shown more frequently in illustrations than females in similar settings;
- females portrayed in nurturing occupations, while males are portrayed in high-status career roles; and
- the female identity defined by using the male as a reference.

If the preliminary analysis reveals evidence of gender stereotyping in one or more of these areas, a more extensive examination may be necessary. Disproportionate representations will suggest a number of factors, including a lack of written documentary evidence. *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives* (Banks and Banks, 1989) and *A Guide to Developing Multicultural, Nonsexist Education Across the Curriculum* (Iowa Department of Education, 1989) are excellent resources for use in more extensive analyses.

The pluralistic nature of our society is misrepresented by materials that perpetuate ethnic stereotypes. Many Americans are strengthened by their ethnic heritage; conversely, others experience discrimination because of their ethnic affiliations. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) underscores ethnic diversity as a positive, integral ingredient in American society. The NCSS "Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education" provide guidance for designing, implementing and evaluating ethnic studies programs (see Chapter 7). A number of criteria can be used to detect the presence of ethnic stereotyping in social studies materials. The following guidelines, also adapted from Patton, are useful:

- the pluralistic qualities of the nation are not characterized in print and visuals;
- ethnic individuals or families are not accurately depicted in illustrations and photographs;
- attempts are not made to avoid presenting stereotypes of ethnics in their historic and contemporary roles;
- members of ethnic groups are only presented as prominent individuals;
- only the negative aspects of an ethnic group's participation in American society are reflected in the materials;
- the most significant aspects of an ethnic group's values and traditions are not portrayed; and
- accurate, scholarly and current information is not presented on all ethnic groups.

If the preliminary analysis reveals evidence of tokenism, omissions or lack of balance, a more extensive examination may be necessary. The curriculum committee must be wary, however, because not all of the questions will apply to every set of materials. Strained inclusion of ethnic groups is as unacceptable as their exclusion.■

Locally Designed Materials

One obvious alternative to published materials that do not include females and members of diverse ethnic groups is for local districts to generate materials of their own. School systems increasingly are drawing upon the expertise of their own teachers to design precisely what is

needed. Local corporate and nonprofit institutions often are willing to help underwrite meaningful educational change. School districts also should encourage relevant professional development at the state and local levels. Many districts also offer mini-grant programs.

Teacher- or student-designed materials may be the most immediately productive learning devices, the most useful long-term educational materials and the most cost-effective. Social studies teaching can result in the production of educationally viable clay models, drawings, paintings and simulated artifacts. Tangible replicas from past history can be filmed, reproduced and used in subsequent years. Student-generated diaries, journals, reports and newspapers can be "published" and circulated among social studies students. Audio and/or videotapes can preserve oral history interviews for future classes, plus record dramatizations, demonstrations, exhibits, collections, outside speakers, museum tours and field trips for later use. Curriculum archives should be organized to hold the locally developed instructional materials.

Substantial benefits can result from the development of materials at the local level. They include local pride among teachers and students – an additional motivation to learn; the production of materials that match local goals; and teacher remuneration for active learning. Locally developed materials also should meet the goals outlined in *Connecticut's Common Core of Learning* (1987).■

Criteria for Selection

Before examining any instructional materials, the curriculum committee should have before it the rationale and goals, the selected objectives and content, and the instructional techniques which are to be stressed. Because school systems literally buy into the system of commercially published textbooks, careful scrutiny of packaged educational materials remains one of the highest priorities for a curriculum committee. All elements of curriculum planning should be complete prior to initiating the selection of materials.

Students are entitled to instructional materials of the highest caliber presented in the most timely and persuasive manner. Watered-down curriculum materials, whether written, audiovisual or in computer software, likely will bypass all students. Poor readability poses special problems, which imply that steps must be taken to ensure understanding. The obvious challenge is to search for materials which stress the concrete over the abstract, the tangible over the elusive, and the straightforward over the complex, without playing to the lowest common denominator.

Sec. 10-18a of the *Connecticut General Statutes* requires that content of textbooks and other instructional materials ". . . accurately present the achievements and accomplishments of individuals and groups from all ethnic and racial backgrounds and of both sexes."■

Survey and Decision

What sources provide reliable and current information about commercially published classroom materials? *Social Education*, the journal of the National Council for the Social Studies, frequently raises issues such as assessment of instructional materials. It is very important for the social studies curriculum committee to be aware of current trends in textbook publishing and of diverse points of view. Local curriculum decision makers must inform publishers of their needs so appropriate materials can be developed.

Another very informative source is the *Social Studies Materials and Resources Data Book* published by the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC) in Boulder, CO. This book annotates elementary and secondary curriculum materials as well as teacher resource materials. It lists title, author, publisher, publication date, grade level, materials, cost, overview, analysis, required or suggested time for coverage, and readability. These and other sources, such as the NCSS *Tool Kit* and works by William E. Patton, James Davis and Frances Haley, O. L. Davis, Jr., and James D. Carroll are listed in the Resources and References sections at the end of this chapter.

Teachers and curriculum developers can obtain examination copies from publishers. A book's preface or introduction, teacher's guide, stated rationale and suggestions for collateral materials will either whet the appetite or prevent a further waste of time. Other considerations include the book's clarity, sense of authority, scholarly interpretation, significance, content, format, readability, elimination of stereotypes and ability to engage students. Unfortunately, students too often are considered inconsequential in the textbook-selection process. Feedback should be sought from this intended captive audience.

Finally, there is an overriding financial consideration. As materials are being evaluated, committees need to perform cost-benefit analyses and seek materials that:

- seem suitable to the maturity level of the students;
- further the selected educational goals and objectives;
- are the highest quality available for the money; and
- do not sacrifice instructional quality in order to save money.■

TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES

As described in *Connecticut's Guide to Program Development in Learning Resources and Technology* (1991), a technology-integrated curriculum in social studies is an enriched program of study that motivates and encourages excellence in students of all abilities and grade levels. When technology resources are used effectively in social studies instruction, students can access information in ways never possible before.■

Computers

Computers have the potential to revolutionize instruction. They are powerful, versatile tools in the classroom. As independent, stand-alone units, computers can be used by students working in teams, pairs or as individuals, or by teachers as an "electronic chalkboard." Connected to a telephone line and modem, the computer becomes a valuable tool for conducting online research and data gathering, communicating with others over vast distances, teleconferencing and participating in interactive simulations in international forums. When classroom computers are networked to a central fileserver, students can access online encyclopedias (such as Grolier's or Compton's) housed on CDs in the library media center. Students also can participate in joint activities with other classes and take advantage of interactive software that is not available for stand-alone computer systems.

A complete computer software collection includes computer-aided instruction (CAI) or drill and practice, tutorials, applications (keyboarding, word processing, spreadsheet, database, telecommunications, graphics and desktop publishing), simulations, and interactive activities that challenge students to apply problem-solving and critical-thinking skills. In addition, computers serve as the host vehicle for a variety of peripherals and attachments, including cameras and camcorders, CD players, videodisc players, printers, fax machines, televisions and VCRs. Computers can record and reproduce sound, voice and music. They can capture and display voice, video and data. They can run videos directly on the computer monitor or as part of a slide show presentation through the emerging technology of compressed video. But most importantly, computers can encourage students to engage in active, creative learning. This occurs when computers and other technologies are integrated into the curriculum and classroom instruction.■

Drill and Practice

Computer-aided instruction (CAI) had, until recently, referred to drill and practice exercises in which concepts and skills were addressed through rote learning. Today's drill and practice software, however, has overcome some of the repetitiveness associated with earlier versions by incorporating more exploratory and problem-solving activities into the exercises. The *Ripple* and *All Star Drill* are examples of drill and practice software.■

Tutorials

Like drill and practice programs, tutorials provide students with a variety of multilevel exercises and issues that they can explore on their own with the computer as a guide. Tutorials can encourage students to improve their map-reading skills or understanding of historical events through explanatory text and visual aids which accompany each activity. *PC Globe* and *Research Paper Writer* are examples of tutorial programs in the social studies.■

Simulations

Simulations combine role-playing, debate, decision making, problem solving, critical thinking, "what if" experimentation, and discussion skills to address complex issues and events. Students interact with one another and with the challenging real-life dilemmas posed by the software and videos. Interactive software programs encourage students to use their best problem-solving and critical-thinking skills as they "travel" around the world or through history. Online interactive simulations, such as National Geographic Society's *Kidsnet*, and AT&T's *Distance Learning* projects (international classroom collaborations), afford students an opportunity work cooperatively on global studies and global issues with students around the world. Other examples include *Decisions, Decisions, GTV: A Geographic Perspective on American History*, and *Where in the World is Carmen San Diego*.■

Word Processing

Computers are excellent tools for researching information, outlining, writing and integrating information from texts, tables, graphs and graphic images into a single document. Students can easily enter and manipulate textual information, edit grammar and syntax, and use a spelling checker and thesaurus that comes with most word processing programs. Word processing is an essential skill for students and teachers to acquire and master, and one that will be an asset to them in social studies research writing. Some examples of word processing programs are *Bank Street Writer* and *Appleworks*.■

Databases

A powerful aspect of technology is its ability to store, retrieve, manipulate and analyze information contained in databases. Databases are collections of raw data and descriptive information listed by field names or identifiers which enable students to conduct research, sort information into usable units, and manipulate data as part of social studies inquiry. Small databases may be kept on disks, moderately large databases on hard disks and file servers, and massive databases (such as encyclopedias) are found on CD discs and mainframe computers. With a computer, modem and telephone line, students can access various online databases, such as *Dow Jones*, or conduct surveys via electronic mail systems or electronic bulletin boards. Databases are an integral part of social studies inquiry. Some examples of databases are *Timeliner* and *PC Globe;* databases available on CD discs are *ABC News Interactive* and *Grolier's Encyclopedia*.■

Desktop Publishing

A technology-integrated social studies curriculum invites opportunities for students to engage in desktop publishing as they work to create social studies research reports. Desktop publishing calls upon a vast array of skills – reading, research, writing, graphics, art, layout, design, etc. – and encourages students to apply their knowledge and skills in producing materials that focus on real issues from the student's perspective. *PageMaker* and *Children's Writing* are examples of desktop publishing programs.■

Video

Television is an effective means of bringing the world into the social studies classroom. A broad array of social studies video programs is available to Connecticut school districts through broadcast by Connecticut Public Television and carried by all cable systems in the state. The schedule for each school year is found in the *Instructional Television Schedule and Resource Guide*, published by the Connecticut State Board of Education. A sample listing of social studies-related video programs is included in Appendix I, Instructional Television Resources. All programs included in the appendix have extended "record and use" rights that allow school districts to record programs at the time of broadcast. In certain cases an arranged copying service may be available for new programs being released. In addition, teacher's guides are available to Connecticut users. Just as the video replaced the 16mm projector, the interactive discs and telecommunications technology that link computers with television eventually will create new instructional tools for student learning.■

Telecommunications

When technology is an integral part of the instructional program, a wealth of learning opportunities can be opened up in a variety of social studies areas. Students can witness events as they happen or examine the contexts of the historical record. They can tap into online sources for information from library media centers, television and media associations, research institutes and educational institutions. Telecommunications in the classroom can be accomplished via voice, data or video contact through:

- a computer, modem and telephone line (a speaker phone is an asset);
- instructional television, which is part of a distance learning network; and
- satellite teleconferences.

Through telecommunications, students can participate in interactive simulations, teleconferences, joint research projects and impact studies with students at home and abroad through programs such as those listed on page 56.

- Research Projects – National Geographic Society's *Kidsnet*, research projects on various themes and topics; and
- Instate Telecommunications – Connecticut State Department of Education's *Knowledge Network* and *Instructional Television* programming.■

Interactive Videodiscs

One of the most promising of the emerging technologies is the interactive or laser videodisc. Students learn by viewing, discussing, researching, role-playing and debating issues that are presented through the interplay of text, graphic images, charts and tables, and full motion videos. With a barcode reader, students and teachers can scan through the enormous masses of information stored on the videodiscs in a matter of seconds. Used in conjunction with texts, computers and other print materials (such as newspapers and periodicals), videodiscs bring the world into the classroom in a manner that is both captivating and realistic.■

Nonprint Materials

Nonprint materials increasingly are important in social studies instruction, yet often they are selected with little prior appraisal of their usefulness. The social studies committee should select filmstrips, videotapes, records, films, laserdiscs, CDs, software, artifacts and other nonprint materials as carefully as they select textbooks and other printed materials. Nonprint materials need to be examined for gender and ethnic stereotyping and treatment of the exceptional students just as carefully as print materials.

Evaluations of nonprint materials are available from many sources. Professional journals usually include comments from teachers about materials recently released. Media specialists can provide valuable information. Often, nonprint materials are previewed by committees before adoption. When materials are being examined, they should be judged by the same criteria that the committee has selected for print materials. They should:

- be clear and easy for pupils to comprehend;
- provide information best presented in a given format;
- allow students with differing learning styles to use them readily;
- justify cost;
- provide unique learning opportunities;
- show no evidence of bias;
- be easy to use; and
- involve the students more than a text can.■

Library Media Resources

Most of a school's resources to support teaching and learning are either housed or accessed through the library media center. No longer just a book room, the library media center has the technology, motivational and informational resources that offer students and teachers a variety of alternatives for accomplishing learning objectives. The library media center is the central access point for all resources located in the school. The library media specialist serves as a link to resources available outside the school.

A carefully selected and organized collection will support goals for social studies education by providing print and nonprint materials that will give breadth and depth to classroom instruction. The collection will contain materials that represent diverse perspectives on issues; introduce students to books, videos and other materials by or about people around the world; and supply up-to-the-minute information on world events using online databases. Through interlibrary loan, additional materials can be located to support specific units or projects.

The school library media specialist not only is a manager of the learning resources collections, but also a teacher trained in curriculum and instructional development who is available to:

- give instruction and guidance to students in learning to locate and use information from a variety of sources and in a wide range of formats, integrating these skills into existing curriculum;
- cooperate in designing units of instruction so as to include options for student learning and to acquire appropriate resources for students of all ability levels and learning styles to complete assignments;
- build collections that will better respond to curriculum goals and objectives;
- supply reviews and/or arrange for previews of materials being considered for purchase;
- provide reading guidance to students to enhance curriculum emphasis, such as cultural pluralism and understanding of geographical concepts;
- participate as a partner in curriculum design or revision, offering suggestions for supple-

mentary materials, exploring new technologies for curricular applications and building collections that will support the curriculum;
- train students or teachers in the use of new media formats and their accompanying technology; and
- explain media services, such as video recording, interlibrary loan, production of instructional materials, computer fileserver and other telecommunications.

In addition to the library media specialist, many schools now have access to additional learning resources and technology teachers who can offer services and instruction that will promote learning in the social studies. They may include computer teachers, distance learning coordinators or district-level staff. Often they are able to incorporate principles of social studies education into assignments and pursue cooperative acquisitions or site licenses that will result in better prices and more extensive use of the equipment and materials purchased.

Social studies curriculum developers have the responsibility to oversee the appropriate development and selection of print and nonprint instructional materials. They should carefully match the materials with local goals, student needs, financial constraints, and the expertise and support from the teaching staff members. They will approve of basic and supplementary materials that can be used to adjust the curriculum for individual differences, and then be certain ample time is allowed for teachers to familiarize themselves with the material prior to use.■

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CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION 6

"For every complicated problem, there is a solution that is short, simple, and wrong."
– H. L. Mencken

IMPLEMENTATION
Piloting
Staff Orientation
Special Materials and Support Services
Staff Development

EVALUATION
Standards Assessment
Ongoing Effort

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Curriculum developers who have followed this guide sequentially in order to develop a new curriculum will be prepared to implement and evaluate their program. Those who are revising and refining an existing curriculum may begin with one or more evaluation instruments before making a needs assessment. In either case, Chapter 6 will offer various means to assure a smooth transition for the new curriculum and methods to test its effectiveness.■

IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation customarily involves piloting the curriculum on a limited basis to determine its effectiveness. Other elements include staff orientation, special materials, support services, staff development activities and the continuous review and revision process. Implementation of a program is constant.■

Piloting

A limited use of the new social studies curriculum might be the first step in implementation. Teachers at one elementary school might use it for the first year, allowing the committee to examine the fully functioning program. If it is a large school, only one teacher at each grade level might be asked to try the new program. Likewise, new courses at the secondary level might be piloted with a single class.

Piloting must be monitored carefully. Pilot teachers need the same level of services that full implementation requires. They must participate in program orientation, becoming aware not only of their own program, but also of how it fits into the K-12 sequence. They also must have appropriate materials, both student and professional. They must have the support of either committee members or a district curriculum specialist. They should receive the necessary training, including opportunities to observe how the materials are used in other districts. And they must participate in a careful evaluation of the pilot. The pilot testing of a new or revised curriculum often leads to some revisions prior to districtwide implementation.

Several points should be considered before universal use of the new or revised curriculum. Implementation should be planned so that a teacher:

- introduces no more than one new program each year;
- is not asked to implement a program unless the required materials are available;
- is not asked to teach a new program without some orientation and awareness of its place in the overall curriculum;
- is not expected to teach from a new course outline unless someone can respond to questions;
- can attend staff development sessions that present new techniques, difficult materials or background information; and
- feels free to suggest program improvements.■

Staff Orientation

Planning for staff orientation can be a significant factor in the program's success. If lines of communication have been maintained throughout the development process, teachers will be expecting change. Course outlines and materials should be available and orientation should occur well in advance of the new program's implementation. The scope of the orientation depends on curriculum difficulty, the amount of change and the quality of prior staff communication.

In planning for orientation, curriculum developers should be certain that they have:

- prepared outlines for each teacher at each grade level;
- provided teacher's guides and other materials;
- developed the K-12 sequence;
- planned to highlight the changes and the reasons for them;
- planned for a large-group introduction of the K-12 program, followed by a small-group examination at each grade level;
- prepared materials that explain available support services, planned in-service training and expected teacher evaluation; and
- planned an administrative orientation prior to the teacher orientation.■

Special Materials and Support Services

Implementation may require special materials. If new instructional techniques are being introduced, a first step may be selecting and purchasing videotapes, software or other teaching materials. Books such as those providing background information in a field not previously taught, e.g., anthropology, or those providing training materials, may be added to the professional library. Films may be obtained for use as part of the administrative and teacher orientation. If computer instruction is being introduced, appropriate teaching materials may be necessary. The committee should evaluate the implementation plan and identify any resources required.

Support services are essential for successful curriculum implementation. Small school districts often use curriculum committee members to respond to questions. They may be assisted by principals who have been alerted to possible problems. Larger school districts may have a curriculum consultant who is available for demonstrations, questions or other assistance.

Support services also may come from sources outside the school, such as community members who serve as resources on specific topics, or regional educational service centers that loan materials or provide personnel (see Appendix C). Meetings of state, regional and national organizations often include sessions that are directly related to new curriculum topics. The committee should identify in the curriculum some of the possible support services. For information on additional resources, see Appendix D, Resources for Curriculum Planning.■

Staff Development

The nature of staff development often spells the difference between success and failure. Extensive in-service programs may be necessary in order to plan for implementation. Program planners should consider:

- teachers' experiences with similar curriculums;
- teachers' backgrounds and knowledge;
- familiarity with the instructional techniques;
- commonalty of the evaluation instruments;
- available time;
- available leadership;
- information needed to make adjustments for students with special needs;
- the degree to which participants and students will use the materials in the same ways; and
- the necessity for staff development after the first implementation year, e.g., for new teachers and teachers transferred to new grade levels.

The following staff development models (A, B and C) are examples of how the committee might structure what is planned.

Model A – Minimum

Scheduling: Four sessions, two to three hours each; before implementation, at first quarter's end, at first semester's end, at first year's end.

Program: First session

- K-12 scope and sequence
- program components
- unit structure illustrating content, techniques, materials
- lesson structure illustrating objectives, techniques, parts
- evaluation, short and long term
- summary and questions

Program: Follow-through sessions

- single-topic discussion
- mutual success and failure discussion
- evaluation, including suggestions for change
- summary and suggestions for future sessions

Model B – Moderate

Scheduling: Six sessions, two to three hours each; three before implementation and one each at first quarter's end, at first semester's end and at first year's end.

Program: Introductory sessions

- K-12 scope and sequence
- program components
- unit structure
- instructional techniques, e.g., technologies
- evaluation techniques, e.g., interviewing
- lesson structure
- demonstrations of techniques by participants
- summary and questions

Program: Follow-through sessions

- upcoming units
- evaluation methods review
- single-topic discussion
- mutual success and failure discussion
- evaluation, including suggestions for change
- ways of using local resources
- summary and suggestions for future sessions

Model C – In-Depth

Scheduling: A minimum of 10 two-hour sessions; two before implementation, plus follow-through sessions at each semester's end.

Program: Course

- Session 1: scope and sequence, program components, unit structure, a look at unit one
- Session 2: introduction to instructional techniques, lesson format, questions
- Session 3: conceptual development and micro-teaching
- Session 4: generalizing and micro-teaching
- Session 5: decision making, inquiry and micro-teaching
- Session 6: valuing, including micro-teaching
- Session 7: skills development, including micro-teaching
- Session 8: role-playing and simulation
- Session 9: matching student needs and activities
- Session 10: evaluating student progress

Program: Follow-through sessions

- shared concerns
- specific-topic discussion
- program adaptation for students with special needs
- ways of using local resources
- evaluation and revision ■

EVALUATION

Like implementation, evaluation is an ongoing process; an adequate means to evaluate the curriculum is essential in order to create opportunities for improvement. One critical aspect is the feedback that evaluation provides curriculum developers. Student achievement data that are consistently low may mean that curriculum revision is in order. Criterion-referenced measures, if used, can pinpoint precise areas of need. Standardized test information can pinpoint problems, particularly in the basic skills. Curriculum developers, however, must seek specific information that goes beyond these measures.

There are many ways to gather data. Needs assessments, informal discussions, tabulation of achievement results, specific materials-evaluation instruments and carefully developed effectiveness measures of pilot testing all are possibilities. The curriculum committee should build into the program a monitoring system for feedback on its successes and failures.■

Standards Assessment

All social studies programs should be evaluated according to standards and to the curriculum as it is actually practiced. The social studies standards assessment that follows (pages 63 and 64) was developed by the advisory committee for this guide and will assist curriculum developers in working toward this goal. Directions for the standards assessment follow:

1. Rank each of the following standards (questions) for extent of treatment in the existing social studies curriculum. The scale ranges from 1 (minimal or no treatment) to 5 (extensive treatment).

2. Write a brief supporting statement that provides evidence of the treatment rating.

3. Summarize and discuss – as a social studies staff or curriculum committee – the treatment findings; resolve disagreements.

4. Use points of agreement to set priorities for social studies curriculum areas that need to be addressed.

Social Studies Standards Assessment

(a) To what extent does the social studies program reflect skills and competencies, attributes and attitudes, and understandings and applications identified in *Connecticut's Common Core of Learning?*

(b) To what extent does the social studies program include instruction in citizenship, economics, geography, government and history in a planned, ongoing and systematic manner?

(c) To what extent does the school ensure that all students are knowledgeable in United States history, including instruction in United States government at all levels, and in the duties, responsibilities and rights of citizenship?

(d) To what extent do the social studies program and materials include a multicultural perspective that reflects accurately our nation's pluralistic society?

(e) To what extent do the social studies program and materials offer perspectives from a non-Western point of view?

(f) To what extent do the program and materials encourage the discussion of controversial issues, with a balanced representation of opposing points of view?

(g) To what extent do the social studies program and materials relate directly to the age, maturity and concerns of students?

(h) Are planned, ongoing and systematic professional development activities available to teachers?

(continued)

Social Studies Standards Assessment (continued)

(i) To what extent does the social studies program offer a wide variety of teaching strategies that involve students in active learning?

(j) To what extent do strategies of instruction and learning activities rely on a broad range of learning resources in addition to the textbook?

(k) To what extent does the social studies program have access to and utilize computers and other technologies for instructional purposes?

(l) To what extent is student assessment used to improve the social studies program?

(m) To what extent is there K-12 coordination of and articulation within the social studies program?

(n) To what extent does the social studies program provide for students to engage in community service activities and participate in civic affairs of school and community?

(o) To what extent does the social studies program accommodate students in need of special or supplemental instruction and, at the same time, achieve the goal of democratic participation through heterogeneous grouping practices?

(p) To what extent does the program implement new perspectives in the social studies?

As evaluation data are collected from many sources, the persons charged with curriculum responsibility should translate these data and recommend curriculum revision or redesign. The social studies curriculum should be responsive to feedback and should change as the need for change is demonstrated through assessment results.■

Ongoing Effort

For a social studies program to be effective, it must receive continuous attention and maintenance. The greatest challenge to the discipline is the integration of human knowledge and experience into a form that can be effectively managed and included in the K-12 student experience. The motto must not be what might be added, but what is most important and what might be left out. The social studies field is too important to be relegated to the position of the "curriculum dump," the place for important agendas that seemingly cannot be placed in other areas of the curriculum. The purpose of this guide is to assist curriculum decision makers and practitioners in addressing important social studies issues necessary for implementing a planned, ongoing and systematic curriculum.

At this stage the curriculum revision process must begin where it began in Chapter 1. Revision includes the developmental tasks identified on page 4. Chapter 7 will provide an example that a social studies curriculum committee can use to take an emerging issue or perspective and apply the concepts outlined in Chapters 1-6 to accomplish program revision.■

Resources

Connecticut State Department of Education. *Connecticut's Common Core of Learning.* Hartford, CT: Connecticut State Department of Education, 1987.

Parker, Walter C. *Renewing the Social Studies Curriculum.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1991.

CITIZENSHIP AND MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION 7

> *"The purpose of education . . . is to create in a person the ability to look at the world for himself, to make his own decisions . . . But no society is really anxious to have that kind of person around. What societies really . . . want is a citizenry which will simply obey the rules of the society. If a society succeeds in this, that society is about to perish."*
> – James Baldwin

CITIZENSHIP
Definition
GOALS AND THEMES
NCSS Multiethnic Guidelines
Connecticut's Common Core of Learning
A Conceptual Curriculum Model
CONTENT: CURRICULUM APPROACHES
Contributions Approach
Additive Approach
Transformation Approach
Decision-Making and Social Participation Approach
Mixing and Blending the Approaches
Interdisciplinary Alternatives
Ethnic Group Alternatives
INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS
CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION
Connecticut Curriculum Recommendations

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This final chapter develops an essential premise: the meaning of citizenship as it relates to cultural diversity, values and responses. It examines the meaning of multicultural education, considers its goals and themes, presents examples of various content alternatives, raises issues bearing upon instructional techniques, offers criteria for selection of student materials, and concludes with considerations on implementation and evaluation. This model has applications that can be modified for use in other curricular areas.■

CITIZENSHIP

Understanding the critical role of citizenship in education is fundamental to the preservation of a democratic society in the United States. In a 1963 presentation to teachers, James Baldwin expressed alarm as he observed the views displayed by American society. "The purpose of education," Baldwin said, "is to create in a person the ability to look at the world for himself, to make his own decisions .... But no society is really anxious to have that kind of person around. What societies really . . . want is a citizenry which will simply obey the rules of the society. If a society succeeds in this, that society is about to perish." This observation is as appropriate for today as it was nearly 30 years ago, when the United States was grappling with fundamental issues related to diversity and equality.

Social studies was defined in Chapter 1 as "the integration of knowledge and human experience for the purpose of citizenship education." Furthermore, citizenship was said to foster the protection of individual rights and responsibilities as well as cultural diversity, values and responses. The concept of democracy protecting both individualism and collective cultural values runs to the heart of America's evolutionary process. From the arrival of forerunners of Native Americans to the most recent flow of immigrants upon our shores, we are members of a pluralistic society, all guaranteed certain rights and liberties legally constituted in a document written more than 200 years ago.

If multicultural values and responses are a distinct characteristic of our American tradition, they deserve special attention and should become integrated into our educational system. These values and responses link the democratic ideal of parity with Thomas Jefferson's advice to "inform the people's discretion through instruction."■

Definition

Multicultural education is an idea, a reform movement and a process, according to one of this nation's leading authorities on the subject, James A. Banks. It is the idea that all learners should be provided with equal access to education regardless of culture, age, gender, social class, religion, race or exceptionality. It is intimately connected to helping all students succeed and, therefore, must not be viewed as a passing fad. As a reform movement, multicultural education encompasses the total school environment and consists of a number of major identifiable variables and factors (see Figure 7, on page 69, The School as a Social System). As a process, multicultural education is ongoing in order to eliminate setbacks to liberty and justice for all.

A major goal of multicultural education is to help students develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills needed to function within their own microcultures, other microcultures, the U.S. macroculture, and within the global community. To achieve this goal, educators must distinguish between the local and international dimensions of multicultural education. Focusing on the cultural experiences of people as they exist outside the United States should not be a substitute for addressing ethnic and cultural issues present within the boundaries of the United States.

While international aspects of multicultural education are important and can shed light on the backgrounds of people living within the United States, they often can lead to assumptions about ethnic and cultural groups that are not true. Too often this becomes a means to escape the realities of multicultural issues for schools dominated by majority populations contiguous to neighboring school districts that may have large minority populations. Helping students learn about diversity in their surrounding environments is a cost-effective way to begin exploration of multicultural diversity in the global community. Figure 8 on page 70 can assist the curriculum designer in developing appropriate programs and practices and in distinguishing between the various levels of implementing pluralism in American schools.

The School as a Social System

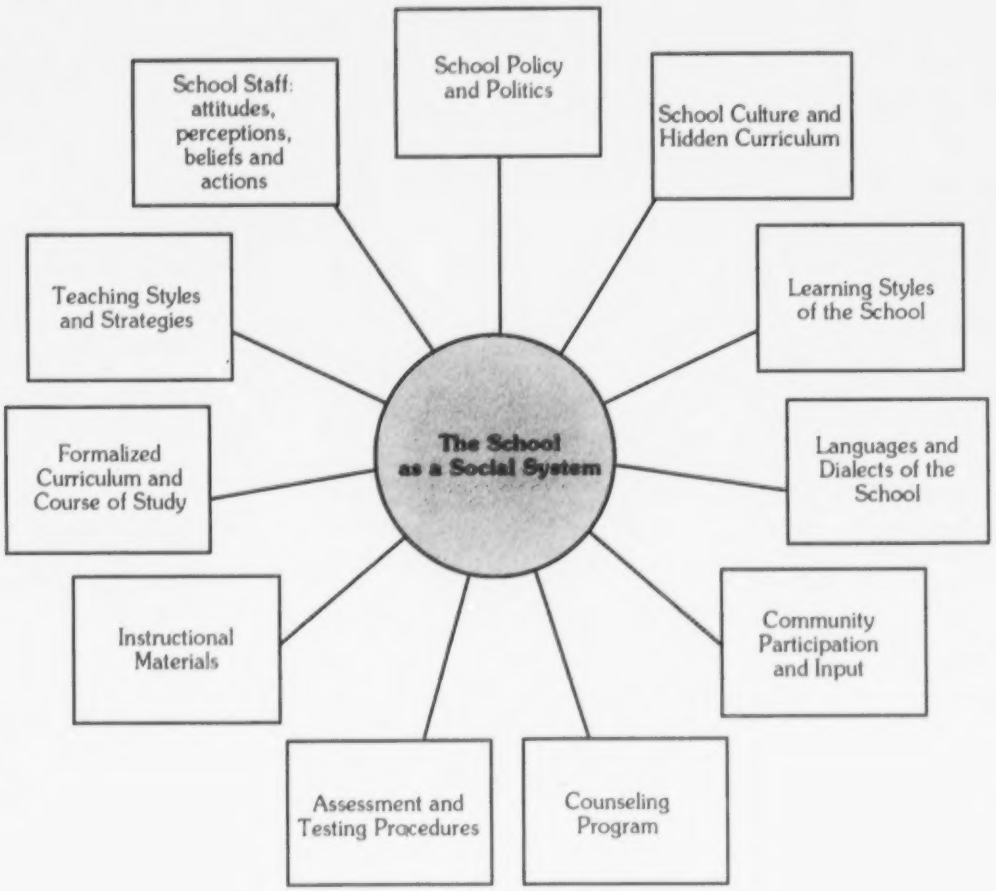
School Policy and Politics
School Staff: attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and actions
School Culture and Hidden Curriculum
Teaching Styles and Strategies
Learning Styles of the School
The School as a Social System
Formalized Curriculum and Course of Study
Languages and Dialects of the School
Instructional Materials
Community Participation and Input
Assessment and Testing Procedures
Counseling Program

Figure 7

From *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives*, James A. Banks and Cherry A. McGee Banks, editors. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1989. Used with permission.

Programs and Practices Related to Pluralism in American Schools

Program and Practice	*Focus*	*Objectives*	*Strategies*
Multicultural Education	Cultural groups in the United States, especially those that experience prejudice and discrimination in American society.	To help reduce discrimination against stigmatized cultural groups and to provide all cultural groups with equal educational opportunities.	Creating a school atmosphere that has positive institutional norms toward a range of cultural groups in the United States.
Multiethnic Education	Ethnic groups within the United States.	To help reduce discrimination toward victimized ethnic groups and to provide students from all ethnic groups equal educational opportunities. To help reduce ethnic isolation, encapsulation, and polarization.	Modifying the total school environment to make it more reflective of the ethnic diversity within American society.
Ethnic Studies	Ethnic groups within the United States.	To help students make reflective decisions on issues related to ethnicity and to take action to eliminate racial and ethnic problems within American society. To help students develop valid concepts, generalizations, and theories about ethnic groups in the United States and to clarify their attitudes toward them. To help students develop ethnic literacy.	Modifying course objectives, teaching strategies, materials, and evaluation techniques so that they include content and information about ethnic groups in the United States.
Global Education	Nation-states and cultures throughout the world.	To help students understand the highly interdependent nature of world society and to acquire knowledge of other nations. To help students develop the skills and attitudes needed to become reflective citizens of a global world society.	Reforming the curriculum so that it helps students to develop an understanding of the various nations and cultures in the world. Implementing teaching strategies and materials that help students to develop more positive attitudes toward cultures and nations outside the United States.

Figure 8

From *Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies, 4th edition,* by James A. Banks. Allyn and Bacon, Inc. 1987. Used with permission.

The term *multicultural,* like others such as *multiracial* and *multiethnic,* help to describe this nation's history of pluralism. Voluntary immigrants, primarily from European countries, continually enriched America's cultural diversity throughout the 19th century. At the turn of the century, the inscription upon the newly erected Statue of Liberty summed up the past outreach to newcomers: "Give me your tired, your poor, your huddled masses yearning to breathe free."

Yet, pluralism had its limits. Xenophobia swept the country as free access to American shores ended. Even before the inscription was placed on the Statue of Liberty, restrictions from certain countries already had begun and, by the end of World War I, nativists successfully erected immigration quotas. The Immigration Act of 1917 was designed to halt the immigration of Southeastern, Central and Eastern European groups. The Immigration Act of 1924 drastically limited the number of immigrants that could enter the United States from all European nations, except those in Northern and Western Europe. White Anglo-Saxon Protestants, whose sociological traditions and values in earlier times had been a prerequisite for social acceptability, now were being threatened by competing lifestyles and the sheer number of immigrants. Cultural assimilation became less successful. Within the nation, African Americans (forced immigrants) and Native Americans (forced migrants), basically remained outsiders. The assimilationist idea of the "melting pot," in which ethnicity and race are not important identities, deeply influenced American society. Yet, despite the persistence of this belief, ethnic differences continue to exist for several reasons, including discriminatory practices that prevent inclusion, the desire by some groups to retain ethnic values, and continuing immigration to the United States.

Cultural pluralism more closely describes the reality of our diversity today. Rather than a model for cultural assimilation as suggested by the "melting pot"

metaphor, many see American society resembling a "salad bowl," in which each cultural group contributes its uniqueness to the total society while maintaining its own traditions. Cultural pluralists not only accept cultural diversity, they value its preservation.

Multiethnic theorists caution against the extremes of cultural pluralism, however, when group rights and separate ethnic values prevent a larger cultural unity. In such cases, they reject both extremes – assimilation and cultural pluralism – and prefer a middle ground. This third position is multiethnic ideology, which describes an open society in which both minorities and majorities have equal opportunities to function and participate.

The ideas embodied in multiculturalism have contributed to one of the most persistent social themes in United States history. Since the 1970s, cultural awareness has been on the rise, inspired by the civil rights movement and the struggle for equality for members of minority groups and majority group members such as Polish Americans, Italian Americans and Swedish Americans seeking a greater knowledge of their past. Alex Haley's *Roots* has added even greater credibility to the nation's growing quest for individual as well as cultural roots. Haley's cynosure validates the search by every American, not just his brethren of African descent. The current idea, reform movement and process for multicultural education rests upon the bedrock of interactive cultural pluralism or multiethnic ideology.

Other definitions also are important. For example, multiethnic education depends upon the meaning of *ethnic group*, as it does upon a number of other concepts. *Ethnic group* usually is defined as an involuntary collective of people which shares feelings of common identity, unity and interdependence. Membership serves useful functions, such as providing a network of preferred friendships and institutions, a means to perpetrate cultural patterns, and a way to identify others. An additional factor is identity on the grounds of race, such as African Americans, Asian Americans and Latino Americans. The study of the dynamics of ethnic group relationships helps to explain some of the successes and failures in the Americans' upwardly mobile quest for political and economic power.■

GOALS AND THEMES

Multicultural education is a goal on both the national and local levels. It is a goal of the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), which seeks to have impact both on curriculum materials and the school environment. The "Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education," published in 1976 by NCSS, follow.■

NCSS Multiethnic Guidelines

- Ethnic pluralism should permeate the total school environment.
- School policies and procedures should foster positive multiethnic interactions and understanding among students, teachers and the support staff.
- The curriculum should reflect the ethnic learning styles of the students with the school community.
- The multiethnic curriculum should provide students with continuous opportunities to develop a better sense of self.
- The curriculum should help students to understand the totality of the experiences of American ethnic groups.
- The multiethnic curriculum should help students understand that there is always a conflict between ideals and realities in human societies.
- The multiethnic curriculum should promote values, attitudes and behaviors which support ethnic pluralism.
- The multiethnic curriculum should help students develop their decision-making abilities, social participation skills and a sense of political efficacy as necessary bases for effective citizenship in an ethnically pluralistic nation.
- The multiethnic curriculum should help students develop the skills necessary for effective interpersonal and interethnic group interactions.
- The multiethnic curriculum should be comprehensive in scope and sequence, should present holistic views of ethnic groups and should be an integral part of the total school curriculum.
- The multiethnic curriculum should include the continuous study of the cultures, historical experiences, social realities and existential conditions of ethnic groups, including a variety of racial compositions.
- Interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches should be used in designing and implementing the multiethnic curriculum.

- The curriculum should use comparative approaches in the study of ethnic groups and ethnicity.
- The curriculum should help students to view and interpret events, situations and conflict from diverse ethnic perspectives and points of view.
- The curriculum should conceptualize and describe the development of the United States as a multidirectional society.
- The curriculum should make maximum use of local community resources.

From "Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education," NCSS, 1976. Used with permission.

As a corollary to multiethnic education, NCSS also emphasizes global education (see page 14).■

Connecticut's Common Core of Learning

Connecticut's Common Core of Learning points out that "a positive self-image and self-esteem are crucial to learning." Education for pluralistic values depends upon positive attributes and attitudes, namely the idea that effective learning is enhanced by a student's positive self-concept, motivation and persistence, intellectual curiosity, interpersonal relations, a sense of community, plus moral and ethical values. Content goals in the Common Core relating to history and the social sciences emphasize student understanding of "the roles played by various racial, ethnic and religious groups in developing the nation's pluralistic society."

Goals and themes applicable to multicultural education appear within this guide. Chapter 2 suggests that curriculums focusing on pluralism will draw from a knowledge base about this country, thinking skills to create and interpret meaning, and first-hand participation. The sections in Chapter 2 about valuing and major themes also are useful for multicultural education. These themes include cultural pluralism, continuity and change, community, culture, equal opportunity, freedom and justice, human rights, interdependence, and world peace.

The key goal for multicultural education, according to James Banks, is to promote student problem solving and to develop decision-making skills. Banks' model for multicultural education involves scientific, higher-level and interdisciplinary knowledge, from which the student identifies his or her values, determines the conflict, identifies the value alternatives, and freely chooses the alternatives. The student also freely accepts the possible consequences of the action.■

A Conceptual Curriculum Model

Banks' conceptual multiethnic curriculum model is interdisciplinary. Thus, it draws knowledge from a combination of traditional content areas. For example, the key concept of *culture* can be enriched by comparing different ethnic groups in social studies, examining samples from literature in language arts, and gaining different perspectives through the study of music, drama, art and science.

Banks' curriculum model begins with lower-level empirical statements about limited phenomena – or facts – such as, "In 1981, 55,600 Vietnamese immigrants came to the United States." Facts must be subject to proof and not normative or value statements. Concepts follow, i.e., words or phrases which categorize or classify a large number of factual observations such as assimilation, acculturation, discrimination and power. Immigration, another example, will be supported by a number of facts, such as the number of Vietnamese immigrants admitted in 1981 (above).

Key concepts appropriate for multicultural instruction in social studies areas follow.

History
- immigration
- migration
- continuity and change

Geography
- location
- place
- movement
- human/environmental interactions
- regions

Anthropology
- diversity
- acculturation
- assimilation
- culture
- language

Psychology
- self-concept
- perception
- individual difference
- attitudes

Sociology
- ethnic group
- discrimination
- prejudice
- values
- family

- community
- intergroup relationships

Government

- power
- rules and law
- citizenship
- responsibility
- decision making

Economics

- scarcity
- opportunity/cost
- unemployment
- interdependence

Generalizations comprise two or more concepts that share a relationship. Similar to facts, they can be verified. Generalizations may summarize a large number of facts. They may be a lower level of generalization, such as, "Chinese immigrants in America established various forms of social organization," or a higher level of generalization, such as, "Forms of social organizations emerge in all human societies."

Theory is the highest level of knowledge in the Banks' continuum and the most useful in predicting human behavior. Theory, therefore, is the ultimate goal of the multiethnic model. Theory is the final step in the deductive process, just as the thesis is for the inquiry model in science and social studies. The conceptual model for developing a lesson or series of lessons on migration – illustrated below – begins with the required knowledge base. Appendix H (Developing A Multicultural Curriculum) shows how a multicultural unit on migration can be developed using the full dimensions of the multicultural definition and by combining pedagogy with the necessary content and skills.

Conceptual Model for Developing a Lesson or Unit on Migration

Concept: Migration

Key Generalization: People migrate voluntarily or involuntarily for many of reasons, and economics is one.

Intermediate Generalizations: Most ethnic groups came to the United States voluntarily and moved within it to improve their economic conditions. However, some ethnic groups either were forced to come to the United States or were forced to move from one region to another.

Lower-Level Generalizations: Puerto Rican voluntary migration to the United States often has reflected economic trends. American Indians were forcibly removed from their lands within the United States as white settlers moved west. During the early history of the United States, African Americans were forcibly brought as slaves to support labor needs. In the late 1800s, Chinese Americans voluntarily immigrated to the United States seeking better economic opportunity.

Goals and themes also may be written in terms of student outcomes. These goals are designed to examine the underlying theory that cultural differences do not imply cultural deficiencies. Some goals might include:

- understanding self and others acting within a cultural context;
- recognizing cultural diversity within the United States and the world;
- understanding how group membership contributes to value, attitude and behavioral determination;
- understanding the interrelationship of discrimination, bias, prejudice and stereotyping; and
- demonstrating and employing skills for effective social interaction among different racial, cultural, ethnic, religious, gender and exceptionality factors.■

CONTENT: CURRICULUM APPROACHES

Multicultural education is a perspective, not a discipline. It is inappropriate, therefore, to look at multicultural education in terms of a scope and sequence traditionally presented from a discipline point of view. For this reason, understanding the various curriculum approaches and interdisciplinary alternatives is fundamental in viewing multicultural education as a reform movement that can have a significant impact on the curriculum of a school. Banks identifies several approaches to integrating ethnic content into the curriculum that has evolved since the 1960s. The following information on the various approaches is adapted with permission from *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives* (1989), Allyn and Bacon, by James A. Banks and Cherry A. McGee-Banks.■

Contributions Approach

The *contributions approach* to integration is among those used most frequently and often is used extensively during the first phase of an ethnic revival movement. This

approach is characterized by the addition of ethnic heroes or heroines into the curriculum. The mainstream curriculum would remain unchanged in terms of its basic structure, goals and salient characteristics.

The *famous people and holidays approach* is a variant of the *contributions approach*. In this approach, ethnic content is limited primarily to special days, weeks and months related to ethnic events and celebrations. Three Kings Day, Hanukkah, Martin Luther King's Birthday, Puerto Rican Discovery Day and Black History Month are examples of ethnic observances that are celebrated in the schools. During these celebrations, teachers involve students in lessons, experiences and pageants related to the ethnic holiday or observance. When this approach is used, the class studies little or nothing about the ethnic groups before or after the special event.

The *contributions approach* is the easiest way for teachers to integrate the core curriculum with ethnic content. However, it has several serious limitations. Students do not attain a global view of the role of ethnic and cultural groups in U.S. society. Rather, they see ethnic issues and events primarily as an addition to the curriculum and, consequently, as an appendage to the main story of the development of the nation. The teaching of ethnic issues with the use of famous people, holidays and contributions also tends to gloss over important concepts and issues related to the victimization and oppression of ethnic groups and their struggles against racism and for power. Issues such as racism, poverty and oppression tend to be evaded in the *contributions approach* to curriculum integration. The focus, rather, tends to be on success and validation of the Horatio Alger myth that every American who is willing to work hard can go from rags to riches and pull himself or herself up by the bootstraps.

The *contributions approach* often results in the trivialization of ethnic cultures, the study of their obscure and exotic characteristics, and the reinforcement of stereotypes and misconceptions. With this focus, students are not helped to understand these cultures as complete and dynamic wholes.■

Additive Approach

Another important approach to the integration of ethnic content is the addition of content, concepts, themes and perspectives to the curriculum without changing its basic structure, purposes and characteristics. The *additive approach* often is accomplished by the addition of a book, unit or course to the curriculum without changing it substantially.

The *additive approach* allows teachers to insert ethnic content without restructuring the curriculum, a process that would take substantial time, effort, training and rethinking as to purposes, nature and goals. The *additive approach* can be the first phase in a more radical curriculum reform effort designed to restructure the total curriculum and integrate it with ethnic content, perspectives and frames of reference. This approach, however, shares several disadvantages with the *contributions approach*. The most important shortcoming is that it usually results in the viewing of ethnic content from the perspectives of mainstream historians, writers, artists and scientists, because it does not involve a restructuring of the curriculum.

The events, concepts, issues and problems are selected for study through the use of mainstream centric and Eurocentric criteria and perspectives. When teaching a unit such as "The Westward Movement" in a fifth grade class, the teacher may integrate the unit by adding content about the Lakota (Sioux) Indians. However, the unit remains mainstream centric and focused because of its perspective and point of view. "The Westward Movement" unit is both mainstream centric and Eurocentric because of its focus on the movement of European Americans from the eastern to the western part of the United States. The Lakota Indians were already in the West and, consequently, were not moving west. The unit might be called, "The Invasion from the East," from the point of view of the Lakota. An objective title for the unit might be, "Two Cultures Meet in the Americas."

The *additive approach* also fails to help students to view society from diverse cultural and ethnic perspectives and to understand the ways in which the histories and cultures of the nation's diverse ethnic, racial, cultural and religious groups are inextricably bound.■

Transformation Approach

The *transformation approach* differs fundamentally from the *contributions* and *additive* approaches. *Transformation* changes the basic assumptions of the curriculum and enables students to view concepts, issues, themes and problems from several ethnic perspectives and points of view. The key curriculum issue involved in the *transformation approach* is not the addition of a long list of ethnic groups, heroes or heroines, and contributions, but rather the infusion of perspectives, frames of reference, and content from various groups that will extend student understandings of the nature, development and complexity of U.S. society. When students are studying the revolution in the British colonies, the perspectives of the Anglo revolutionaries, Anglo loyalists, Afro-Americans,

Native Americans and the British all are essential in order to attain a thorough understanding of this significant event in U.S. history.

When studying U.S. history, language, music, arts, science and mathematics, the emphasis should not be on the ways in which various ethnic and cultural groups have contributed to mainstream U.S. society and culture. The emphasis, rather, should be on how the common U.S. culture and society emerged from a complex synthesis and interaction of the diverse cultural elements that originated within the various cultural, racial, ethnic and religious groups that make up American society. One of the ironies of conquest is that those who are conquered often have a deep influence on the cultures of the conquerors.■

Decision-Making and Social Participation Approach

This approach includes all of the elements of the *transformation approach* but adds components that require students to make decisions and take actions related to the concept, issue or problem they have studied in the unit. In this approach, students might study a social problem such as, "What actions should we take to reduce prejudice and discrimination in our school?" They would gather pertinent data, analyze their values and beliefs, synthesize their knowledge and values, identify alternative courses of action, and then decide what, if any, actions they would take to reduce prejudice and discrimination. Major goals of the *decision-making and social participation approach* are to teach students thinking and decision-making skills, empower them and help them acquire a sense of political efficacy.■

Mixing and Blending the Approaches

The four approaches to integrating ethnic content into the curriculum often are mixed and blended in actual teaching situations. The *contributions approach* also can be used as a vehicle to move toward other more intellectually challenging approaches, such as the *transformation* and the *decision-making and social participation* approaches. It is not realistic to expect a teacher to move directly from a highly mainstream centric curriculum to one that focuses on decision making and social participation. Rather, the move from the first to higher levels of ethnic content integration into the curriculum is likely to be gradual and cumulative as shown in right column from Banks, 1990. Appendix H illustrates one way to apply several curriculum approaches to a unit on migration.

For instruction to move beyond the *contributions approach*, teachers must be armed with knowledge. Taking courses that focus on content knowledge of specific ethnic groups is an essential first step.

Adapted from *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives*, by James A. and Cherry A. McGee Banks. Allyn and Bacon, 1989. Adapted and used with permission.

Levels of Integration of Ethnic Content

Level 1, *contributions approach* – focuses on famous people, holidays and discrete cultural elements.

Level 2, *additive approach* – content, concepts, themes and perspectives are added to the curriculum without changing its structure.

Level 3, *transformation approach* – the structure of the curriculum is changed to enable students to view concepts, issues, events and themes from the perspective of diverse ethnic and cultural groups.

Level 4, *decision-making and social participation approach* – students make decisions on important social issues and engage in participatory activities to help solve them.■

Adapted from "Approaches to Multicultural Curriculum Reform," James A. Banks. *Multicultural Leader*, 1990. Used with permission.

Interdisciplinary Alternatives

The choice of content for multicultural education encompasses the breadth of our national experience. Multicultural education is a perspective necessary to reform the social studies and, in fact, all disciplines.

Students will gain a global understanding of a concept such as culture only by viewing ethnic cultures from the perspectives of a variety of disciplines. The strategy to "dump" responsibility for multicultural education on a single discipline such as the social studies clearly is inappropriate if students are to understand the full dimensions of culture. Curriculum planners need to take strong action to encompass the total school environment.

The following list of disciplines and key or focus questions adapted from Banks (1987) will serve to illustrate how various disciplines can contribute to student understanding of culture.

Social Studies. In what ways are the cultures of ethnic groups such as Afro-Americans, Jewish Americans, and Mexican Americans similar and different? Why?

Reading and Literature. How do the fiction and other literary works by American ethnic authors reveal characteristics and components of their cultures?

Music. What does the music of an ethnic group reveal about its values, symbols and culture?

Drama. What do plays written by ethnic authors reveal about their cultures?

Physical Education. How do ethnic groups express their cultures, values, aspirations and frustrations in their dances and creative movements?

Art. What does the art of an ethnic group reveal about its lifestyles, perceptions, values, history and culture?

Language Arts. How does the language of an ethnic group express and reflect its values and culture? What can we learn about an ethnic group by studying its symbols and communication styles, both verbal and nonverbal?

Home Economics. What do ethnic foods reveal about an ethnic group's values and culture? What can we learn about an ethnic culture by studying its foods?

Science. How do the physical characteristics of an ethnic group influence its interactions with other groups, intragroup relationships and its total culture?

Mathematics. What is the relationship between the number system used within a society and its culture? What do the symbol systems within a culture reveal about it? Historically, what contributions have different ethnic groups made to our number system?

Language. How does language contribute to maintaining the culture of the ethnic group?

Health. How do the cultural values of an ethnic group influence decisions on health?■

Adapted from *Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies*, by James A. Banks. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1987. Used with permission.

Ethnic Group Alternatives

Another curriculum alternative considers the full range of ethnic groups within the United States. Making decisions on which groups should be included in the curriculum ultimately will be made by the teachers involved, using both social and value knowledge, that is, both cognitive and affective knowledge. Thus, value judgments are inseparable from content. For the same reason, the study of a cultural group in isolation for chronological purposes, with interaction along the continuum, risks tokenism and an unrealistic social compartmentalization. Suggestions that follow indicate possible content-related topics for the study of ethnic groups or groupings according to the conceptual model described earlier.

African Americans
- Slave Trade
- Colonization Movement
- Civil War and Reconstruction
- World War I
- Black Organizations
- Civil Rights Movement

American Indians
- Origins of American Indians
- Diversity of Indian Cultures
- Treaties and Indian Removal
- Federal Indian Policy
- Fishing Rights and Land Claims

Chinese Americans
- Immigration East to West
- Immigration Restriction
- Chinatowns

Cuban Americans
- The Cuban Revolution
- Immigration to the U.S.
- Adaptation to American Life

European Ethnic Groups
- The Spanish in the Americas
- English Colonization
- Early European Immigration
- Anglo-Saxon Cultural Dominance
- Southern and Eastern European Immigrants
- Ethnic Revival
- Assimilation

Filipino Americans
- Immigration East to West

Indochinese Americans
- Peoples and Cultures of Indochina
- The Vietnamese Evacuation
- Refugee Camps
- Cultural Adjustment in the U.S.

Japanese Americans
- Immigration East to West
- Internment

Jewish Americans
- Historical Roots
- German-Jewish Immigration
- Rise of Anti-Semitism
- The New Immigration
- The Holocaust
- Zionism

Mexican Americans
- The Spanish Conquest
- Mexican-American War
- Migration North from Mexico
- Chicano Movement

Puerto Ricans
- Ethnic Heritage: Taino Indian, African and Spanish
- United States Rule
- Commonwealth of Puerto Rico
- Migration to U.S. Mainland
- Mainland Puerto Rican Community
- The Status Question ■

INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES

In a curriculum area based upon value-laden interdisciplinary content, and in which the object is for students to develop decision-making skills, the teaching environment will need to be receptive. Students will question, investigate and decide upon statistical social data as well as their own personal feelings and reactions. Ground rules will need to allow the teacher to be an involved observer, cultural mediator and change agent.

Chapter 4 covered a host of appropriate instructional skills. Questioning, group interaction, cooperative learning, case studies and role-playing are just a few. Decision-making skills, however, should be reflective, meaning that students not only evaluate the evidence based upon given data, but are prepared to resolve personal problems and then act upon the solutions. The resulting scientific inquiry model closely approximates that appropriated for the "new" social studies in the 1960s.

A brief illustration in James Banks' *Multiethnic Education* (1988) adapts reflective decision making to a sample teaching unit. The question in this unit is whether or not racial integration should be a goal in a pluralistic democratic nation or, rephrased, "What action should we take regarding integration?"

An infinite number of hypotheses may be proposed. One example is, "If minorities are required to meet qualifications similar to whites, then most institutions will remain predominately white." Key concepts will need to be defined, such as discrimination, assimilation, powerlessness and separatism. The concepts, supporting facts and different levels of generalization should be drawn from several disciplines. The examination will show students the highly volatile nature of the evidence. Teachers may choose to present readings from opposite positions and then ask students to analyze the evidence.

Teaching strategy not only calls for social inquiry from existing external data, but requires an inquiry into a teacher's own values and attitudes regarding multicultural interaction. Banks suggests several alternatives. Members of small groups may defend or reject one position encountered during their study – forced busing, interracial marriage, reverse discrimination or interracial dating – and then discuss those opinions in the larger group.

Students then would be asked to identify alternative courses of action and list possible consequences. The alternatives may include further study projects, classroom activities, schoolwide projects, or community and townwide activities. At this point, if not earlier, participating learners have an ownership in the proposed solutions and consequences. Moreover, when reassessment of these social hypotheses and solutions occur, students will be engaged in one of the ultimate social studies goals, that of developing thinking skills.

A logical starting point for young children to experience multicultural activities is to connect all activities to individual students and their families. Using

culture as a conceptual theme, these activities then should be extended to place children and families within the broader context of their communities. All multicultural activities should be concrete and centered on the daily lives of children and their families, and may include languages used by children and their families, values, how families feed themselves, the work that family members do in and out of the home and the various compositions of different families. Such activities, while helping children to understand and appreciate their own cultures, also will help them to understand that everyone has a culture and that there are similarities and differences within ethnic groups, as well as among different ethnic groups of various cultures.

For younger children, multicultural activities should permeate the daily classroom experiences, connecting such learning and activity centers and curriculum areas as language arts, mathematics, science, art and others. For example, photographs may be used to make books about individual children, their families and communities. This may lay the foundation for reading about children and families beyond the immediate environment. Children may deal with various types of measurement when preparing food or dealing with distances as they develop maps of their communities. Various artifacts used by different ethnic groups may be placed in the dramatic play area, e.g., cooking utensils, everyday or ceremonial clothing, and other artifacts.

Multicultural education frequently involves strategies for prejudice reduction, and teachers may want to seek further in-service training on related theories, research and strategies. Another problem for administrators and teachers is that mainstream thinking suggests all ethnic newcomers must conform to the universal values of the common culture and be committed to its ideology, as opposed to helping students to function effectively within the common culture as well as their own and other ethnic cultures. Teachers must view society from diverse ethnic perspectives rather than just that of the common culture.■

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

In a society where diversity abounds, locating suitable curriculum materials can be a challenge. Further complicating the challenge is the fact that many materials may not be readily obtained from major education publishers. A combination of materials drawn from major publishers and the skill of the teacher in using student and community resources is the best solution.

Many of the best resources are found through professional and ethnic organizations that either publish materials or develop bibliographies. One of the best publications that lists and reviews current ethnic literature is *The Bulletin*, published quarterly by the Council on Interracial Books for Children. The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith and the Japanese American Curriculum Project also are known for their multicultural resources appropriate for use in the nation's schools. In May of each year *Social Education*, the official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies, publishes a supplement on children's books. Teachers also are urged to read reviews in magazines and newspapers and to browse in bookstores that specialize in children's books. James A. Banks, in *Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies, Fifth Edition* (1990), offers a comprehensive listing of appropriate student and teacher books for ethnic groups. Finally, the school or district media specialist is an invaluable resource for locating appropriate multicultural materials.

Guidelines for selection also can be useful (see Chapter 5). In addition, Banks (1987) offers the following general guidelines for selecting ethnic studies materials:

- Books and other materials should accurately portray the perspectives, attitudes and feelings of ethnic groups.
- Fictional works should have strong ethnic characters.
- Books should describe settings and experiences with which all students can identify and yet accurately reflect ethnic cultures and lifestyles.
- The protagonists in books with ethnic themes should have ethnic characteristics but should face conflicts and problems that are universal to all cultures and groups.
- The illustrations in books should be accurate, ethnically sensitive and technically well done.
- Ethnic materials should not contain racist concepts, clichés, phrases or words.
- Factual materials should be historically accurate.
- Multiethnic resources and basal textbooks should discuss major events and documents related to ethnic history.

Adapted from *Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies*, by James A. Banks. Allyn and Bacon, 1987. Used with permission.

Curriculum developers are responsible for selecting materials based upon local goals, student needs, financial constraints, and the expertise and support of the teaching staff. Preparing to select materials with a multicultural perspective may require additional expertise in order to ensure the use of resources that accurately portray our diverse society.■

CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

Curriculum committees should not undertake lightly the implementation of multicultural education. By the very nature of the social studies, multicultural content and attitudes exist throughout the curriculum, whether introduced by inference, by way of teacher interest, or intentionally within a given course. Past experience shows that ethnic studies frequently come as an addition to the curriculum separate from the mainstream, such as in the study of unique customs and/or in the celebration of cultural holidays.

Old assumptions have to be questioned when they are viewed as a process for curriculum reform. Is current teaching of Western societies presented from the mainstream perspective, i.e., a Eurocentric perspective? Is no other frame of reference considered, and are no non-Western courses added? If so, what are the implications of these traditional approaches?

The traditional Western course selection, plus additions such as African, Asian and/or black studies is another common practice. The risk in this methodology is that the additions are perceived from the same Eurocentric perspective: African or Asian cultures being measured by Western standards.

A third model, the multiethnic approach, deals differently with course content. Courses employ relatively similar concepts, themes, issues and events. When studied together, they are evaluated on a conceptual rather than an ethnocentric basis. Banks suggests a fourth model, which he calls "the ultimate goal in curriculum reform." That is the ethnonational model, in which students view concepts from the perspective of various groups with different nations.

Implementation and evaluation are at opposite ends of the curriculum development process. But actually, they come together, because implementation should trigger the evaluation process. If a school is to respond seriously to the multicultural curriculum needs of students and society, it must constantly examine characteristics that create a multicultural school.■

Connecticut Curriculum Recommendations

The six findings published in 1990 by Connecticut's Governor's Commission on Quality and Integrated Education are important to consider. The second finding – "A quality education requires an integrated student body and faculty and a curriculum that reflects the heritage of many cultures" – contained the following recommendations:

- Educational goals and the school environment must welcome and accommodate integrated education;
- The curriculum should impart an expectation that all students will become successful learners;
- The curriculum, both written and informal, should be multicultural, reflecting the heritage of many cultures;
- Instructional materials and library collections too must mirror the heritage of many cultures;
- In appraising the education of all our children, we must use appropriate assessments;
- Schools should supplement a multicul-tural environment with complementary assembly programs, field trips, etc.; and
- The school leadership must remain open and responsive to constructive proposals from staff, parents and their organizations.

In the final analysis, as reflected in the curriculum recommendations above, implementation of multicultural education needs parent and community involvement. Parents and community leaders validate educational reform, spread ideas, and provide the essential underpinning for continued success. Education is not the teacher's job alone; parental support for multicultural school reform increases the likelihood for success.■

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Resources

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APPENDIX A
LEGISLATION

This series of guides to curriculum development, published by the State of Connecticut Board of Education, is consistent with the provisions of Sections 10-4 and 10-16b of the *Connecticut General Statutes*.

> *Section 10-4. Duties of Board.* (a) . . . shall prepare such courses of study and publish such curriculum guides . . . as it determines are necessary to assist school districts to carry out the duties prescribed by law . . .
>
> *Section 10-16b. Prescribed courses of study.* (a) In the public schools the program of instruction offered shall include at least the following subject matter, as taught by legally qualified teachers: the arts; career education; consumer education; health and safety, including, but not limited to, human growth and development, nutrition, first aid, disease prevention, community and consumer health, physical, mental and emotional health, including youth suicide prevention, substance abuse prevention and safety and accident prevention; language arts, including reading, writing, grammar, speaking and spelling; mathematics; physical education; science; social studies, including, but not limited to, citizenship, economics, geography, government and history; and in addition, on at least the secondary level, one or more foreign languages and vocational education. . . .
>
> (c) Each local and regional board of education shall on September 1, 1982, and annually thereafter at such time and in such manner as the commissioner of education shall request, attest to the State Board of Education that such local or regional board of education offers at least the program of instruction required pursuant to this section, and that such program of instruction is planned, ongoing and systematic.
>
> (d) The State Board of Education shall make available curriculum materials and such other materials as may assist local and regional boards of education in developing instructional programs pursuant to this section.

Instruction related to United States history, government and duties and responsibilities of citizenship shall be provided consistent with the provisions of Section 10-18 of the *Connecticut General Statutes*.

> *Section 10-18. Courses in United States history, government and duties and responsibilities of citizenship.* (a) All high, preparatory secondary and elementary schools, public or private, whose property is exempt from taxation, shall provide a program of United States history, including instruction in United States government at the local, state and national levels, and in the duties, responsibilities, and rights of United States citizenship. No student shall be graduated from any such school who has not been found to be familiar with said subjects.
>
> (b) The State Board of Education shall, upon request by a board of education, make samples of materials available for use in the schools required to teach the courses provided for in this section, with supplementary materials for such use.

Textbooks and other general instructional materials used by local or regional boards of education must be consistent with the provisions of Section 10-18a of the *Connecticut General Statutes*.

> *Section 10-18a. Content of textbooks and other general instructional materials.* Except where a legitimate educational purpose will otherwise be served, each local or regional board of education shall, in selecting textbooks and other general instructional materials select those which accurately present the achievements and accomplishments of individuals and groups from all ethnic and racial backgrounds and of both sexes. Nothing herein shall preclude the use of instructional material and teaching which emphasizes the traditional family structure.

Students graduating from high school must complete three years of social studies instruction consistent with the provisions of Section 10-221a. of the *Connecticut General Statutes.*

> *Section 10-221a. High school graduation requirements. Report required of State Board of Education.* (a) Commencing with classes graduating in 1988, and for each graduating class thereafter, no local or regional board of education shall permit any student to graduate from high school or grant a diploma to any student who has not satisfactorily completed a minimum of twenty credits . . . not fewer than three in social studies . . . . Determination of eligible credits shall be at the discretion of the local or regional board of education, provided the primary focus of the curriculum of eligible credits corresponds directly to the subject matter of the specified course requirements. These requirements shall apply to any student requiring special education pursuant to Section 10-76a, except when the planning and placement team for such student determines the requirement not to be appropriate. For purposes of this section, a credit shall consist of not less than the equivalent of a forty-minute class period for each school day of a school year except for a credit or part of a credit toward high school graduation earned at an institution accredited by the Department of Higher Education or regionally accredited. Only courses taken in grades nine through twelve, inclusive, shall satisfy this graduation requirement, except that a local or regional board of education may grant a student credit (1) toward meeting a specified course requirement upon the successful completion in grade seven or eight of any course, the primary focus of which corresponds directly to the subject matter of a specified course requirement in grades nine to twelve, inclusive; or (2) toward meeting the high school graduation requirement upon the successful completion of coursework at an institution accredited by the Department of Higher Education or regionally accredited. One three-credit semester course, or its equivalent, at such an institution shall equal one-half credit for purposes of this section. Notwithstanding the grant of such credit, each such student shall complete at least twenty credits in grades nine to twelve, inclusive, successfully. The State Board of Education shall assist local and regional boards of education in meeting the requirements of this section.

APPENDIX B
STATEWIDE EDUCATIONAL GOALS FOR STUDENTS – 1991-1995

Goal One: Motivation to Learn

Students must be motivated to learn and to respond to the high expectations of their parents, teachers and school administrators and to their own inherent need to grow and develop. Connecticut public school students will:

- develop self-understanding and a positive self-concept;
- understand and strive to fulfill their own personal aspirations;
- develop positive feelings of self-worth which contribute to self-reliance, responsible behavior, personal growth, health and safety;
- demonstrate strong motivation and persistence to learn; and
- exhibit an inquisitive attitude, open-mindedness and curiosity.

Goal Two: Mastery of the Basic Skills

Proficiency in the basic skills is essential for acquiring knowledge and for success in our society. Connecticut public school students will:

- learn to communicate effectively in speech and writing;
- listen, view and read with understanding;
- acquire knowledge of and ability in mathematics;
- demonstrate skills necessary to locate and effectively use a variety of sources of information, including print materials, media, computers and other technology;
- demonstrate decision-making, reasoning and problem-solving skills alone and in groups; and
- demonstrate good study skills and skills necessary for lifelong learning.

Goal Three: Acquisition of Knowledge

Acquiring knowledge leads to fuller realization of individual potential and contributes to responsible citizenship. Connecticut public school students will:

- acquire the knowledge of science and technology, mathematics, history, social sciences, the creative and performing arts, literature and languages;
- acquire the knowledge necessary to use computers and other technologies for learning and problem solving;
- acquire an understanding and appreciation of the values and the intellectual and artistic achievements of their culture and other cultures; and
- take full advantage of opportunities to explore, develop and express their own uniqueness and creativity.

Goal Four: Competence in Life Skills

As adults, students will be challenged to function successfully in multiple roles – as a citizen, family member, parent, worker and consumer. Connecticut public school students will:

- demonstrate an ability to make informed career choices;
- understand the responsibilities of family membership and parenthood;
- demonstrate the ability to undertake the responsibilities of citizenship in their communities, in the state, in the nation and the world;
- understand human growth and development, the functions of the body, human sexuality and the lifelong value of physical fitness;
- understand and apply the basic elements of proper nutrition, avoidance of substance abuse, prevention and treatment of illness and management of stress;
- understand and develop personal goals and aspirations; and
- upon completion of a secondary-level program, demonstrate the skills, knowledge and competence required for success in meaningful employment, and be qualified to enter postsecondary education.

Goal Five: Understanding Society's Values

As responsible citizens, students will enrich their family, community and culture and create equal opportunity for all persons to participate in and derive the benefits of their society. Connecticut public school students will:

- respect and appreciate diversity;
- understand the inherent strengths in a pluralistic society;
- recognize the necessity for moral and ethical conduct in society;
- understand and respond to the vital need for order under law;
- acquire the knowledge to live in harmony with the environment, and actively practice conservation of natural resources;
- respect the humanity they share with other people and live and work in harmony with others;
- acquire and apply an understanding and appreciation of the values and achievements of their own culture and other cultures; and
- show understanding of international issues which affect life on our planet and demonstrate skills needed to participate in a global society.

From *Challenge For Excellence: Connecticut's Comprehensive Plan for Elementary, Secondary, Vocational, Career and Adult Education: A Policy Plan 1991-1995.* Connecticut State Board of Education, April 1990.

APPENDIX C
ORGANIZATIONAL RESOURCES FOR SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

This section contains the names and addresses of selected national and state organizations and agencies that can provide information and assistance to curriculum developers and teachers of social studies. Also included is a list of selected periodicals that provide information about new developments in the social studies field. A list of regional educational service centers in Connecticut also is included.

For Connecticut resource information on historical museums, libraries and depositories, research/service organizations and other teacher resource services, see *Connecticut History and Culture: An Historical Overview and Resource Guide for Teachers*, Connecticut Historical Commission, 59 Prospect St., Hartford, CT 06106.

Categories and subdivisions in this appendix are as follows:

State and National Organizations and Professional Associations
- Social Studies General
- Social Studies Content Areas
- Social Studies Topics

National and State Periodicals
Regional Educational Service Centers

State and National Organizations and Professional Associations

Social Studies General

Connecticut Council for the Social Studies
P.O. Box 9122
Bolton, CT 06043

National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark St., NW
Washington, DC 20016

Social Science Education Consortium
3300 Mitchell Lane
Boulder, CO 80301

Social Studies Development Center
ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/
Social Science Education
Indiana University
2805 East 10th St.
Bloomington, IN 47408

Social Studies Content Areas

Anthropology

American Anthropological Association
1703 New Hampshire Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20009

Economics

Connecticut Joint Council on Economic Education
University of Connecticut
One Bishop Circle
Box U-55
Storrs, CT 06268

Joint Council on Economic Education
2 Park Ave.
New York, NY 10016

Junior Achievement, Inc.
55 Halfway House Road
Windsor Locks, CT 06096

Geography

Association of American Geographers
1710 16th St., NW
Washington, DC 20009

Connecticut Geographic Alliance
University of Connecticut, U-148
Department of Geography
354 Mansfield Road
Storrs, CT 06268

National Council for Geographic Education
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Indiana, PA 15705

National Geographic Society
17th and M Streets NW
Washington, DC 20036

Government, Citizenship and Political Science

American Civil Liberties Union
132 West 43rd St.
New York, NY 10036

Center for Civic Education
5115 Douglas Fir Ave.
Calabasas, CA 91302

Close Up Foundation
44 Canal Plaza
Alexandria, VA 22314

Connecticut Consortium for Law-Related Education
Office of the Attorney General
110 Sherman St.
Hartford, CT 06105

Council for the Advancement of Citizenship
One Dupont Circle
Washington, DC 20036

Office of the Secretary of the State
210 Capitol Ave.
Hartford, CT 06106

League of Women Voters of the United States
1730 M St., NW
Washington, DC 20036

League of Women Voters of Connecticut
Suite 113
1890 Dixwell Ave.
Hamden, CT 06514

Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship
American Bar Association
1155 East 60th St.
Chicago, IL 60637

History

The American Historical Association
400 A St., SE
Washington, DC 20003

Bradley Commission on History in Schools
26915 Westwood Road, Suite A-2
Westlake, OH 44145

Mershon Center
Ohio State University
199 West 10th Ave.
Columbus, OH 43201

Association for the Study of Connecticut History
Center for Connecticut Studies
Eastern Connecticut State University
Willimantic, CT 06226

Center for Connecticut Studies
Eastern Connecticut State University
Willimantic, CT 06226

Center for Oral History
University of Connecticut
U-103
Storrs, CT 06268

Connecticut Historical Commission
59 South Prospect St.
Hartford, CT 06106

The Connecticut Historical Society
1 Elizabeth St.
Hartford, CT 06105

Institute of Local History
Manchester Community College
Manchester, CT 06040

Organization of American Historians
112 N. Bryan St.
Bloomington, IN 47401

Humanities

Connecticut Humanities Council
41 Lawn Ave.
Wesleyan Station
Middletown, CT 06457

National Endowment for the Humanities
1100 Pennsylvania Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20506

Psychology

American Psychological Association
1200 17th St., NW
Washington, DC 20036

Sociology

American Sociological Association
1772 N St., NW
Washington, DC 20036

Social Studies Topics

International Studies

African-American Institute
866 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017

The Asia Society
725 Park Ave,
New York, NY 10021

Center for Teaching International Relations
University of Denver
Denver, CO 80208

Yale Center for International and Area Studies
Outreach Programs
Yale University Box 13 A
85 Trumbull St.
New Haven, CT 06520

Educators for Social Responsibility
23 Garden St.
Cambridge, MA 02138

Foreign Policy Association
1800 M St., NW, Suite 295
Washington, DC 20036

Global Perspectives in Education, Inc.
45 John St.
Suite 1200
New York, NY 10038

Institute of World Affairs
375 Twin Lakes Road
Salisbury, CT 06068

The I.N. Thut World Education Center
University of Connecticut
School of Education
Box U-32
Storrs, CT 06268

Middle East Institute
1761 N St., NW
Washington, DC 20036

Organization of American States
19th and Constitution Avenues
Washington, DC 20006

Stanford Program on International
and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE)
200 Lou Henry Hoover Bldg.
Stanford University
Stanford, CA 94305

U.S. Committee for UNICEF
331 East 38th St.
New York, NY 10016

World Affairs Center, Inc.
250 Constitution Plaza
Hartford, CT 06105

The World Bank
1818 H St., NW, J2203
Washington, DC 20433

Instructional Technology and Media

Agency for Instructional Technology
P.O. Box A
Bloomington, IN 47402

American Newspaper Publishers Association
Foundation
The Newspaper Center
Box 17407 Dulles Airport
Washington, DC 20041

Prime Time School Television
212 W. Superior
Chicago, IL 60610

Teacher's Guide to Television
699 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10021

Multicultural Studies

Institute for American Indian Studies
P.O. Box 1260
Washington, CT 06793

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith
823 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith
419 Whalley Ave.
New Haven, CT 06520

Connecticut Afro-American Historical Society
444 Orchard St.
New Haven, CT 06511

Council on Interracial Books for Children, Inc.
1841 Broadway
New York, NY 10023

Japanese American Curriculum Project, Inc.
414 E. Third Avenue
San Mateo, CA 94401

NAACP
144 W. 125th St.
New York, NY 10027

National Conference on Christians and Jews
71 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10003

Population Education

Population Reference Bureau
777 14th St., NW, Suite 800
Washington, DC 20005

United States Department of Commerce
Bureau of the Census
Washington, DC 20233

National and State Periodicals

Educational Leadership
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington St.
Alexandria, VA 22314

The History Teacher
Society for History Education
Department of History
California State University
6101 E. 7th St.
Long Beach, CA 90840

Interracial Books for Children Bulletin
1841 Broadway
New York, NY 10023

Journal of Economic Education
Heldref Publications
400 Albemarle St., NW
Washington, DC 20016

Journal of Geography
National Council for Geographic Education
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Indiana, PA 15705

Phi Delta Kappan
Eighth and Union
P.O. Box 789
Bloomington, IN 47402

Social Studies and the Young Learner
National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark St., NW
Washington, DC 20016

Social Education
National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark St., NW
Washington, DC 20016

The Social Studies
Heldref Publications
400 Albemarle St., NW
Washington, DC 20016

Social Studies Update
Connecticut State Department of Education
Division of Curriculum and Professional Development
Bureau of Curriculum and Instruction
P.O. Box 2219
Hartford, CT 06145

Teaching Political Science
SAGE Publications
P.O. Box 776
Beverly Hills, CA 90210

Teaching Sociology
SAGE Publications
P.O. Box 776
Beverly Hills, CA 90210

Yankee Post
P.O. Box 9122
Bolton, CT 06043

Regional Educational Service Centers

Area Cooperative Educational Services (ACES)
205 Skiff St.
Hamden, CT 06511-1095

Capitol Region Education Council (CREC)
599 Matianuck Ave.
Windsor, CT 06095-3598

Cooperative Educational Services (CES)
785 Unquowa Road
Fairfield, CT 06430-5001

Eastern Connecticut Regional Educational Service Center (EASTCONN)
376 Hartford Turnpike
North Windham 06256-1612

Project LEARN
P.O. Box 220
East Lyme, CT 06333-0220

Regional Educational Services Concepts Through Unified Effort (RESCUE)
P.O. Box 909
355 Goshen Road
Litchfield 06759-0909
and
301 Main St.
Danbury, CT 06810-5856

Appendix D
Resources For Curriculum Planning

It is essential for the curriculum committee to have adequate resources with which to examine alternatives and make decisions about revising a social studies program. The following selected resources are provided to assist schools in identifying key resources for subject areas and topics related to the field of social studies. Resource categories include planning, instruction and both the topic and content areas of the social studies curriculum.

Curriculum Content Areas

Economics

Gilliard, June, chair. *Economics: What and When (Scope and Sequence Guidelines, K-12).* New York: Joint Council on Economic Education (JCEE), 1988.

Saunders, Phillip, editor. *A Framework for Teaching the Basic Concepts.* New York: JCEE, 1984.

Schug, Mark C. *Economics for Kids: Ideas for Teaching in the Elementary Grades.* Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1986.

Symmes, S. Stowell, editor. *Economic Education: Links to the Social Studies.* Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 65, 1981.

Geography

Backler, Alan. *Trends/Issues Paper No. 1: Teaching Geography in American History.* Bloomington, IN: Social Studies Development Center, ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1988.

Geographic Education National Implementation Project. *K-6 Geography: Themes, Key Ideas and Learning Opportunities.* Skokie, IL: Rand McNally and Company, 1987.

Joint Committee on Geographic Education. *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Washington, DC: National Council for Geographic Education and Association of American Geographers, 1984.

Ludwig, Gail S., et. al. *Directions in Geography.* Washington, DC: National Geographic Society, 1991.

Natoli, Salvatore J., editor. *Strengthening Geography in the Social Studies.* Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 81, 1988.

Government, Citizenship and Political Science

Connecticut State Department of Education. *Teacher's Resource Manual on Voter Education.* Hartford, CT, 1988.

Hepburn, Mary A. *Democratic Education in Schools and Classrooms.* Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Bulletin 70, 1983.

Jarolimek, John, and Parker, Walter, editors. *Citizenship and the Critical Role of the Social Studies.* Washington, DC: NCSS, Bulletin 72, 1984.

Keller, Clair W., and Schillings, Denny L., editors. *Teaching About the Constitution.* Washington, DC: NCSS, Bulletin 80, 1987.

NCSS Board of Directors. "Position Statement: Democratization of Schools." Washington, DC, 1979. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

NCSS Citizenship Committee. "Position Statement: Essential Characteristics of a Citizenship Education Program." Washington, DC, 1984. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

Quigley, Charles N., and Bahmueller, Charles F. *CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education.* Calabasas, CA: Center for Civic Education, 1991.

History

Bradley Commission on History in the Schools. *Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in the Schools.* Washington, DC: Educational Excellence Network, 1988.

Cheney, Lynne V., chair. *American Memory: A Report on the Humanities in the Nation's Public Schools.* Washington, DC: National Endowment for the Humanities, 1987.

Downey, Matthew T., editor. *Teaching American History: New Directions*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Bulletin 67, 1982.

Downey, Matthew T., editor. *History in the Schools*. Washington, DC: NCSS, Bulletin 74, 1985.

Remy, Richard C., and Woyach, Robert B. "Strengthening World Studies: The Challenge of Conceptualization." *Social Education* 52 (November/December 1988): 484-488.

Humanities

Cheney, Lynne V., chair. *American Memory: A Report on the Humanities in the Nation's Public Schools*. Washington, DC: National Endowment for the Humanities, 1987.

Collier, Christopher. "Literature of Connecticut History," *The Connecticut Scholar*. Middletown, CT: Connecticut Humanities Council (CHC), Number 6, 1983.

Levy, Tedd, and Olson, Betty. *The Noblest of Thoughts: Literature and American History*. Middletown, CT: CHC, 1987.

Curriculum Topics

Future Studies

Haas, John D. *Future Studies in the K-12 Curriculum*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC), 1988.

Haas, John D. *Teaching About the Future: Tools, Topics and Issues*. Boulder, CO: SSEC, 1987.

Human Rights

Branson, Margaret Stimmann, and Torney-Purta, Judith, editors. *International Human Rights, Society and the Schools*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1982.

Connecticut State Department of Education. *Resource Guide – Human Rights: The Struggle for Freedom, Dignity and Equality*. Hartford, CT, 1987.

Shiman, David. *Teaching About Human Rights: Issues of Justice in a Global Age*. Denver, CO: Center for Teaching International Relations, 1988.

International Studies

Fersh, Seymour. *Asia: Teaching About/Learning From*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1978.

Goldhawk, Sara, and Kramb, Vera, editors. *The New Global Yellow Pages*. New York: Global Perspectives in Education, Inc. (GPE), 1989.

Gorham, Amy, editor. *The Global Resource Book*. New York: GPE, 1986.

Kniep, Willard, editor. *New Steps in Global Education: A Handbook for Curriculum Development*. New York: GPE, 1987.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) International Activities Committee. "Position Statement: Global Education." Washington, DC, 1981. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit*, NCSS, 1988.

Multicultural Studies

Banks, James A., and Banks, Cherry A. McGee, editors. *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1989.

Banks, James A. *Multiethnic Education: Theory and Practice*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1988.

Banks, James A. *Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies, Fifth Edition*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1990.

Bennett, Christine I. *Comprehensive Multicultural Education, 2nd ed.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1990.

Connecticut State Department of Education. *Teacher's Resource Manual on Martin Luther King, Jr.* Hartford, CT, 1988.

Natoli, Salvatore J., editor. "Special Section: Reducing Prejudice." *Social Education* 52 (April/May 1988): 264-291.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). "Position Statement: Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education." Washington, DC, NCSS, 1976.

Tiedt, Pamela L., and Tiedt, Iris M. *Multicultural Teaching: A Handbook of Activities, Information and Resources, 3rd ed.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1990.

Science, Technology and Society

Hickman, Faith M.; Patrick, John J.; and Bybee, Roger W. *Science/Technology/Society: A Framework for Curriculum Reform in Secondary School Science and Social Studies*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC), 1987.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) Science and Society Committee. "Position Statement and Guidelines: Teaching Science-Related Social Issues." Washington, DC, 1982. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit*, NCSS,1988.

Singleton, Laurel R. *Science/Technology/Society: Training Manual*. Boulder, CO: SSEC, 1988.

State and Local History

Roth, David M., editor. *Connecticut History: An Historical Overview and Resource Guide for Teachers*. Hartford, CT: The Connecticut Historical Commission and The Center for Connecticut Studies, Eastern Connecticut State University, 1985.

Schug, Mark C., and Beery, R., editors. *Community Study: Applications and Opportunities*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 73, 1984.

Stave, Bruce M., and Sutherland, John F. *Talking About Connecticut: Oral History in the Nutmeg State*. Center for Oral History, University of Connecticut and Institute for Local History, Manchester Community College, 1985.

Religion

Collie, William E., and Smith, Lee H., editors. "Teaching About Religion: Vistas Unlimited." *Social Education* 45 (January 1981): 15-34.

Hayes, Charles C. *A Teacher's Guide: Religious Freedom in America*. Silver Spring, MD: Americans United Research Foundation, 1986.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) Religion in the Schools Committee. "Position Statement and Guidelines: Study About Religions in the Social Studies Curriculum." Washington, DC, 1984. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit*, NCSS, 1988.

Instruction

Use of Technologies

Budin, Howard, and Kendall, Diane S., editors. "Special Section: Computers in Social Studies." *Social Education* 51 (January 1987): 32-59.

Budin, Howard; Kendall, Diane S.; and Lengal, James G. *Using Computers in the Social Studies*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1986.

Laughlin, Margaret A.; Hartoonian, H. Michael; and Sanders, Norris M., editors. *From Information to Decision Making: New Challenges for Effective Citizenship*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Bulletin 83, 1989.

NCSS Ad Hoc Committee on Computer Courseware Evaluation Guidelines. "Position Statement and Guidelines: Social Studies Microcomputer Courseware Evaluation." Washington, DC, 1983. Also available in *Building Support for the Social Studies: The Tool Kit*, NCSS, 1988.

Walters, Patty, editor. *Social Studies Curriculum Software Reference Guide, K-12*. Cupertino, CA: Apple Computer, Inc., 1987.

Instructional Materials

Davis, O.L., Jr., et. al. *Looking at History: A Review of Major U.S. History Textbooks*. Washington, DC: People for the American Way, 1986.

Carroll, James, chair. *We the People: A Review of U.S. Government and Civics Textbooks*. Washington, DC: People for the American Way, 1987.

Paton, William E., editor. *Improving the Use of Social Studies Textbooks*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 63, 1980.

Sewall, Gilbert. *American History Textbooks: An Assessment of Quality*. Washington, DC: Educational Excellence Network, 1987.

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc. *Data Book of Social Studies Materials and Resources*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1990.

Tyson-Bernstein, Harriet, and Woodward, Arthur, guest editors. "Special Section: Coming to Grips with the Great Textbook Machine." *Social Education* 50 (January 1986): 39-70.

Social Studies Teaching

Rogers, Vincent.; Roberts, Arthur D.; and Weinland, Thomas P., editors. *Teaching Social Studies: Portraits From the Classroom*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Bulletin 82, 1988.

Rosenzweig, Linda W., editor. *Developmental Perspectives on the Social Studies*. Washington, DC: NCSS, Bulletin 66, 1982.

Social Studies Skills

Beyer, Barry K., guest editor. "Critical Thinking Revisited." *Social Education* 49 (April 1985): 268-308.

Kurfman, Dana, editor. *Developing Decision-Making Skills*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 47th Yearbook, 1977.

Jarolimek, John, et al. "In Search of a Scope and Sequence for Social Studies," Report of the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force in Scope and Sequence, November 1, 1983. *Social Education* 48 (April 1984): 249-273.

Planning

Basic Resources for Curriculum Planning

Bragaw, Donald H., and Wronski, Stanley P., editors. *Social Studies and Social Sciences: A Fifty-Year Perspective*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Bulletin 78, 1986.

Connecticut State Board of Education. *Connecticut's Common Core of Learning*. Hartford, CT, 1987.

Connecticut State Department of Education. "Social Studies Curriculum Survey, 1984." Hartford, CT, 1986.

Davis, James E., editor. *Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines and Resources*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1983.

Muessig, Raymond H., editor. *Social Studies Curriculum Improvement*. Washington, DC: NCSS, Bulletin 55, 1978.

NCSS. *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit*. Washington, DC: NCSS, 1988.

NCSS. "The Essentials of the Social Studies." Washington, DC, 1980. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit*, NCSS, 1988.

NCSS. "Revision of the NCSS Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines." Washington, DC. Available in *Social Education*, April 1978, 261-273, and in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit*, NCSS, 1988.

Roselle, Daniel, revised by Laurel R. Singleton. "A Parent's Guide to the Social Studies." *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit*. Washington, DC: NCSS, 1988.

Scope and Sequence

Bragaw, Donald H., et al. "Scope and Sequence: Alternatives for Social Studies." *Social Education* 50 (November/December) 1986: 484-542.

Curriculum Task Force of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools and the National Social Science Disciplinary Associations. *Charting a Course: Social Studies Curriculum for the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools, 1989.

Jarolimek, John, et al. "In Search of a Scope and Sequence for Social Studies," Report of the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force in Scope and Sequence, November 1, 1983. *Social Education* 48 (April 1984): 249-273.

Curriculum Guides

California State Board of Education. *History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools*. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1988.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies*. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986.

Early Childhood/Elementary

Atwood, Virginia A., editor. *Elementary School Social Studies: Research as a Guide to Practice.* Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Bulletin 79,1986.

Connecticut State Board of Education. *A Guide to Program Development for Kindergarten, Parts I and II.* Hartford, CT, 1988.

NCSS Task Force on Early Childhood/Elementary Social Studies. "Position Statement: Social Studies for Early Childhood and Elementary School Children Preparing for the 21st Century." *Social Education* 53 (January 1989): 14-23.

NCSS Elementary/Early Childhood Education Committee. "Position Statement: Social Studies for Young Children." Washington, DC, 1984. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

Seefeldt, Carol. *Social Studies for the Preschool-Primary Child.* Columbus, OH: Charles F. Merrill Publishing Co., 1984.

Student Evaluation and Assessment

Connecticut State Department of Education. *Connecticut Assessment of Educational Progress, 1982-83, Social Studies,* "Overview of the Assessment." Hartford, CT, 1984.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) Board of Directors. "Position Statement and Guidelines: Graduation Competency Testing in the Social Studies." Washington, DC, 1978. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

Nickell, Pat, editor. "Student Assessment in Social Studies." *Social Education* 56 (February 1992): 89-111.

Parker, Walter C. *Renewing the Social Studies Curriculum.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1991.

Social Studies Teachers and Teaching

Connecticut State Board of Education. "Policy Statement: Academic Freedom and Public Education," adopted September 9, 1981.

Connecticut State Board of Education. "Policy Statement: Controversial Issues," adopted October 4, 1978.

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) Academic Freedom Committee. "Position Statement and Guidelines: Academic Freedom," 1967. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS. Washington, DC, 1988.

NCSS. "Position Statement and Guidelines: Academic Freedom and the Social Studies Teacher." Washington, DC, 1969. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

NCSS. "Position Statement: The Freedom to Teach and the Freedom to Learn." Washington, DC, 1974. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

NCSS Professional Ethics Committee. "Position Statement: A Code of Ethics for the Social Studies Profession." Washington, DC, 1980. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

NCSS Task Force for Revision of the Teacher Education Standards. "Position Statement and Guidelines: Standards for the Preparation of Social Studies Teachers." Washington, DC, 1987. Also available in *Building Support for Social Studies: The Tool Kit,* NCSS, 1988.

APPENDIX E
TEACHING ABOUT CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

The following policy statement, "Controversial Issues," was adopted by the Connecticut State Board of Education on October 4, 1978.

Learning to deal with controversial issues is one of the basic competencies all students should acquire. Controversial issues are those problems, subjects or questions about which there are significant differences of opinion based for the most part on the differences in the values people bring to the appraisal of the facts of the issue.

Controversy is inherent in the democratic way of life. The study and discussion of controversial issues is essential to the education for citizenship in a free society. Students can become informed individuals only through the process of examining evidence, facts and differing viewpoints, by exercising freedom of thought and moral choice, and by making responsible decisions. The perpetuation of the fundamental principles of our society requires the guarantee that there be opportunity for students to read, to gather information, to speak and to hear alternative viewpoints, and to reach honest judgments according to their individual ability.

In order for students to learn these competencies, teachers must be free to help students to identify and evaluate relevant information, to learn the techniques of critical analysis, and to make independent judgments. They must reinforce the student's right to present and support their conclusions before persons who have opposing points of view. Teachers should also endeavor to develop a flexibility of viewpoint in students so that they are able to recognize the need for continuous and objective re-examination of issues in the light of changing conditions in society and as new and significant evidence becomes available to support a change in point of view. Further, teachers should direct the attention of learners, at the appropriate levels of maturity, to significant issues and promote a lively exchange of ideas about them. Although teachers have the right to express their own viewpoints and opinions, they do not have the right to indoctrinate students with their personal views.

It is recommended that all Connecticut boards of education develop and disseminate a written policy which supports the concept of teaching about controversial issues and resists pressures and charges by special interest groups seeking to impose only one side of an issue upon the schools.

The following policy statement, "Academic Freedom and Public Education," was adopted by the Connecticut State Board of Education on September 9, 1981.

Academic freedom is the freedom to teach and to learn. In defending the freedom to teach and to learn, we affirm the democratic process itself. American public education is the source of much that is essential to our democratic heritage. No other single institution has so significantly sustained our national diversity, nor helped voice our shared hopes for an open and tolerant society. Academic freedom is among the strengths of American public education. Attempts to deny the freedom to teach and to learn are, therefore, incompatible with the goals of excellence and equity in the life of our public schools.

With freedom comes responsibility. With rights come obligations. Accordingly, academic freedom in our public schools is subject to certain limitations. Therefore, the State Board of Education affirms that:

Academic freedom in our public schools is properly defined within the context of law and the constraints of mutual respect among individuals. Public schools represent a public trust. They exist to prepare our children to become partners in a society of self-governing citizens. Therefore, access to ideas and opportunities to consider the broad range of questions and experiences which constitute the proper preparation for a life of responsible citizenship must not be defined by the interests of any single viewpoint. Teachers, school administrators, librarians, and school media specialists must be free to select instructional and research materials appropriate to the maturity level of their students. This freedom is itself subject to the reasonable restrictions mandated by law to school officials and administrators. At the same time, local school officials must demonstrate substantial or legitimate public interest in order to justify censorship or other proposed restrictions upon teaching and learning. Similarly, local boards of education cannot establish criteria for the selection of library books based solely on the personal, social or political beliefs of school board members. While students must be free to voice their opinions in the context of a free inquiry after truth and respect for their fellow students and school personnel, student expression which threatens to interfere substantially with the school's function is not warranted by academic freedom. Students must be mindful that their rights are neither absolute nor unlimited. Part of responsible citizenship is coming to accept the consequences of the freedoms to which one is entitled by law and tradition. Similarly, parents have the right to affect their own children's education, but this right must be balanced against the right other parents' children have to a suitable range of educational experiences. Throughout, the tenets of academic freedom seek to encourage a spirit of reasoned community participation in the life and practices of our public schools.

Since teaching and learning are among the missions of our public schools, the State Board of Education affirms the distinction between teaching and indoctrination. Schools should teach students how to think, not what to think. To study an idea is not necessarily to endorse an idea. Public school classrooms are forums for inquiry, not arenas for the promulgation of particular viewpoints. While communities have the right to exercise supervision over their own public school practices and programs, their participation in the educational life of their schools should respect the constitutional and intellectual rights guaranteed school personnel and students by American law and tradition.

Accordingly, the State Board of Education, in order to encourage improved educational practices, recommends that local school boards adopt policies and procedures to receive, review, and take action upon requests that question public school practices and programs. Community members should be encouraged, and made aware of their right, to voice their opinions about school practices and programs in an appropriate administrative form. The State Board of Education further recommends that local school boards take steps to encourage informed community participation in the shared work of sustaining and improving our public schools.

Finally, the State Board of Education affirms that community members and school personnel should acknowledge together that the purpose of public education is the pursuit of knowledge and the preparation of our children for responsible citizenship in a society that respects differences and shared freedom.

APPENDIX F
FRAMEWORK TO GUIDE STRATEGIC READING BEHAVIOR

The following is adapted from the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction's *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies* (1986), pp. 206 – 208, and is used with permission.

Analyze: Preparing for Reading

Before giving a reading assignment, examine the reading selection or text to determine the features that would help student comprehension and identify unfamiliar vocabulary and concepts that might involve difficulties for the student. Next, assess the students' experiential backgrounds to decide whether or not they have the necessary concepts and vocabulary knowledge to achieve a satisfactory level of meaning from the text. If this background is insufficient, it will be necessary to decide how best to help students acquire it before they read the selection. Vocabulary instruction research indicates that a focus on concepts and meanings in familiar contexts is more profitable than a rote learning of new words in isolation. Thus, one should teach unfamiliar vocabulary essential to understanding text material in rich contextual settings that are relevant and interesting. Vocabulary instruction should occur both before and during reading. The following are some specific suggestions for preparing students for reading.

Assess and expand the students' background knowledge and experiences as related to the text or assignment by:

- directing questions in order to find what students know or believe they know;
- noting misconceptions and offering information to provide adequate background for comprehension; and
- arousing interest and giving students an awareness of the relevancy of text material to their daily lives.

Introduce necessary vocabulary and fundamental concepts by:

- brainstorming with students about the general meaning of new words;
- guiding students to more specific meaning of new words in the assigned text;
- analyzing the structure of the new words to aid in their recognition (roots, prefixes, suffixes); and
- developing a semantic map that links vocabulary to larger concepts.

Plan: Setting a Purpose

The more thoroughly teachers prepare students to identify the organization of the text, the more likely students are to achieve comprehension. Before reading a selection, students should preview it, examine its organization (such as headings, italicized words and summary statements), and develop predictions concerning content. Through this procedure students identify a purpose for their reading. The teacher should focus students' attention on important concepts contained in the text. For example, a history teacher who wants students to understand the events leading to World War II should point out that a list of such factors may be derived from the reading. If geography or exact chronology is desired, that too should be made clear so that students have some sense as to the aspects of text material on which they should focus.

Some specific ways to help students set a purpose for their reading follow:

- Have students note the basic structure of the text, including introductions, headings and conclusions or summaries.
- Discuss titles and subtitles in the assigned material.
- Direct attention to any graphic aids, maps, pictures or charts.
- Point out any study aids such as summary or discussion questions.
- Have students note new vocabulary which is highlighted (italics, bold print, marginal notes).
- Have students generate several questions of their own as guides during their silent reading.

Monitor: Guided Silent Reading

Once reading purposes are clearly in mind, students should read the assigned material silently at their individual pace. Two ways of promoting effective silent reading include having students create guides (questions, outline, chart) to refer to while reading and guiding students to create structured overviews of text material, focusing on identifying main ideas and key facts.

Discuss: Rereading

Following purposeful silent reading, students should be guided in the discussion of the reading content by providing them with an opportunity to talk about the content in relation to their purposes for reading it. They should discuss whether the information acquired was sufficient to answer their questions and fulfill expectations. Where relevant, they should describe how and why purposes for reading changed as they completed the assignment.

Reflect: Critical Thinking

During discussion, students should be asked questions that require them to go beyond the specific details and to think critically about the overall concepts and larger messages in the text. Teachers should have them verify their reasons by rereading sections to support interpretations or to identify inconsistencies in the writer's reasoning. Rereading passages can be done either orally or silently, but always should have a definite purpose.

Suggestions for specific activities involving discussion, reading and reflections follow.

- Discuss answers to prereading purpose questions; confirm and verify answers.
- Interpret information from reading by drawing conclusions, making inferences, generalizing, and identifying interrelationships.
- Evaluate information by making judgments, determining writer's intent, comparing with other texts, and considering the overall significance of the information.
- Reflect upon information by applying to real life (local and current) situations.
- Identify topics from reading for further research, analysis, discussion and, perhaps, writing.

Apply: Extension Activities

Extension activities serve to help students expand upon information gained from the reading. Such activities provide students with opportunities to incorporate new ideas and information into their background understanding.

Some suggestions for extending ideas derived from critical reading include:

- Create structured overviews of the central concepts.
- Locating and reading additional information on one aspect of the material or topic.
- Relating material through activities such as those listed below:
  1. writing a sentence using a key term from the text;
  2. writing a framed paragraph;
  3. summarizing or discussing the main ideas in exposition or narration (a brief story, an imaginary dialogue, a dream);
  4. writing a newspaper editorial or article using the information; and
  5. developing a semantic map that links vocabulary to larger concepts.

Adapted from *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies*, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986. Used with permission.

APPENDIX G
WRITING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The following is adapted from the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction's *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Social Studies* (1986), pp. 204 and 205, and is used with permission.

Why should content-area teachers encourage students to write?

- Writing promotes learning of the subject matter by requiring active attempts at making meaning, requiring planning and reviewing, connecting prior knowledge with new information, making students' thought processes visible and accessible, and helping students to develop higher-order thinking skills.
- Students who write about a concept are less likely to find the concept confusing.
- Students who see that writing can be useful in a wide variety of contexts will be motivated to become better writers.
- The more students write, the more relaxed and positive their attitudes toward writing will be. Students with positive attitudes toward writing are more likely to write well.

How can content-area teachers improve methods of assigning and evaluating writing?

- Think of writing as a tool to aid learning and as a means of communication, as well as a means of evaluation.
- Assign frequent short assignments rather than a single long one. Repeated practice is important in learning to write.
- Be clear in expressing the purpose of a writing assignment. Written assignment sheets specific to each assignment provide guidance through the writing process and answer many students' questions.
- When planning major writing assignments, provide ample time and opportunity for students to brainstorm, explore ideas and develop their ideas through several drafts.
- Assign some writing that will not be evaluated. Idea logs, notebooks, summaries and brief writings to clarify concepts will serve a more useful purpose if they are viewed as means, not ends.
- Provide feedback as students produce drafts, giving them opportunities to apply teacher suggestions, rather than saving all feedback for the final evaluation of a paper.
- Provide opportunities for students to talk about their writing topic. Use miniconferences and small student groups to provide feedback during a student's writing process. Oral comments are faster and often more effective than written ones.
- Pay attention to strengths as well as weaknesses. Success breeds success.
- Share successful student writing with the class by reading aloud, mounting papers on bulletin boards and using an overhead projector.
- Focus on one or two concerns at a time. Work first with ideas and organization, then with mechanical correctness. Do not expect students to address everything at once.

What are some types of writing assignments that enhance the learning of content?

Student logs, journals and idea books. Informal in nature, these notebooks provide frequent opportunities for writing. Students may use these books to define terms, clarify concepts, formulate questions, summarize or evaluate course content or to focus on ideas for class discussion. Journal writing might be done for five minutes at the beginning of a class period to summarize the previous night's assignment, in the middle of a discussion to interpret or expand upon material being presented, or at the end of a class to summarize the day's lesson or to prepare for the next day's assignment.

A dictionary of new terms. Each student writes and revises definitions for new terms and keeps them as a cumulative list. Formulating meanings for terms specific to the subject area aids in comprehension; keeping the list provides an aid to review.

Field notebooks and field journals. These assignments provide opportunities to describe how people in a subject area use and organize language and help students to develop greater skills of observation.

Articles for school and local newspapers. Writing for newspapers allows students to think about the needs of a larger audience – other than the teacher – and helps them to clarify their ideas of the course's topics and activities. Such articles also provide recognition for students.

Letters to the editor and position papers. Writing about issues relates course content to real-world concerns and gives students a chance to practice persuasion skills. Position papers encourage students to work with knowledge and their own ideas to probe for answers to questions and draw conclusions that can be the basis for stimulating interaction.

Story problems. Students learn to incorporate formulas from mathematics lessons in writing their own problems. These can be collected from small groups or classes and used for study or review.

Interviewing. Students develop an awareness of audience and call upon a variety of thinking and writing skills in preparing questions, gathering information and editing answers. Interviews can be either an individual or a small-group activity.

Writing directions for students unfamiliar with a process. This activity requires that students understand the process and are able to sequence the steps to explain the process. Addressing an audience other than the teacher emphasizes the importance of being clear, inclusive and well-organized.

Speech writing and group presentations. Motivation is high when writing is aimed at an audience. Group presentations spark the focus on shared ideas and peer editing, which improves writing quality.

Peer critiques or self-critiques of activities or processes. Written critiques can help students review their performance in order to identify strengths and weaknesses and plan for improved performance. These activities teach valuable self-monitoring strategies.

What kinds of writing activities should be emphasized with students at various levels?

Grades K-3	Grades 4-6	Grades 7-9	Grades 10-12
Informal discussions	Journals	Journals	Journals
Show-and-tell	Dictation	Panel discussions (with written preparation)	Panel discussions
Pantomime	Writing from memory	Informal oral presentations (with written preparation)	Oral presentations
Dictating or writing experiences, captions, or observations	Writing about pictures	Short scripts	Interviews
Reportage	Letters	Script enactments	Letters
Calendar	Written show-and-tell	Letters	Research
Letters	Writing experiences, directions, captions, or observations	Records of observation	Profiles
		Basics of using research sources	Reflections
		Position papers	Generalization and theory
			Position papers

Adapted from *A Guide To Curriculum Planning in Social Studies*, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986. Used with permission.

Appendix H
Developing A Multicultural Curriculum

Chapter 7 presented the goals, themes and curriculum approaches to citizenship and multicultural education. Appendix H is designed to provide a framework within which a multicultural curriculum might be developed. Numerous classroom activities will be recommended for consideration by districts, schools and individual teachers.

Some major concepts of a multicultural curriculum might include the following:

- ethnicity
- migration
- acculturation
- enclaves
- family
- prejudice/discrimination
- power

A list of generalizations under the migration concept includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- Migration-stimulating conditions, socioeconomic conditions affecting migration, and factors in choosing a destination vary considerably from group to group.
- Historically, new discoveries and technologies have led to changes in settlement patterns and the use of land.
- People migrate for a variety of reasons, and economics is only one among many.
- Migrations are selective. In both internal and external migrations, late adolescents and young adults usually are preponderant.
- Ideas, societies and individuals change as they come in contact with ideas and achievements of other societies.
- The movement of one group of people often is accompanied by the displacement of another.
- International migration seems to be more and more influenced by political factors, and less a matter of individual choice.

The following activities represent selected recommendations for a unit on migration.

Activity 1, Roots. As an introduction to the migration unit, the students construct a large wall map showing the locations from which their ancestors came to this country. They also show the approximate dates when their ancestors immigrated. American Indian children may show migration within the United States or North America. This mapping activity is followed by a reading assignment based on "immigrant letters" describing the "new world" and encouraging others to come to the United States.

Activity 2, Migration. This activity is based on a reading assignment in which the concept of migration is summarized. It provides a short overview of migration to the United States and will help students to clarify their hypotheses developed during the first activity.

Activity 3, What Would You Do? In this small-group activity, students are asked to explain how they would respond if they were faced with a variety of situations, e.g., famine, overcrowding, discrimination, etc. The situations are provided on a series of evidence cards and illustrate migration-stimulating conditions.

Activity 4, The Immigrants. Using case studies of immigrants from a variety of backgrounds as sources of data, students consider why immigrants left their homelands and why they settled where they did. They then check many of the hypotheses formulated earlier in the unit. A second part of the activity illustrates ways in which immigration to the United States was encouraged.

Activity 5, A Brief History of Immigration. An overview of immigration to the United States is the basis for the first part of this activity. The students read a story about the history of immigration and construct time lines of United States immigration. They include on their time lines major world events that have influenced migration. A work sheet helps students to speculate on the extent to which each of these events influenced migration to the United States.

Activity 6, How Did They Get Here? In this activity students participate in a simulation illustrating many of the characteristics of slave trade. As a part of the debriefing of this activity, each student reads a brief written account of slave trade. Then, working in small groups, students compare the immigration of other groups – Chinese, Irish, Norwegian, German, Jewish – to the slave trade. They consider how these immigrations are similar and different.

Activity 7, Researching an Immigrant Group. To expand their understanding of immigration to the United States and to apply some of the concepts and generalizations from earlier parts of the unit, students engage in a research project in which they focus on a group other than those treated in the previous activity. To help them find information, the students use books

describing the experiences of various ethnic groups. Their findings are presented in maps, charts, drawings, photographs or a short narrative.

Activity 8, What Types of People Migrate? This photo exercise focuses on the way in which migration tends to be selective in terms of age and sex. The students analyze photographs of immigrants and formulate hypotheses about the age, sex and marital status of immigrants. These hypotheses then are checked against resource data.

Activity 9, Interviewing a Migrant. To get a more personal view of the process of migration/immigration, each student conducts a personal interview with someone who immigrated to the United States or migrated to the local community from elsewhere in this country. Class time is used to design appropriate interview questions and to practice interviewing skills. The results of the interviews are reproduced in writing and/or on tape. A summary discussion compares the findings of the different students.

Activity 10, Reactions to Emigration. Through a brief true-false test, students learn about the restrictions placed on emigration by various countries from which people came to the United States. Some of these restrictions were meant to protect the migrants, others were meant to discourage large-scale emigration, and still others were meant to prevent certain kinds of people from emigrating. A brief follow-up discussion helps students to clarify the reasons behind these restrictions.

Activity 11, The Indochinese Immigration. Throughout most of its history, the United States has welcomed political refugees. In recent decades refugees have come to the United States from eastern Europe, Cuba, and most recently Indochina. Students discuss factors leading to the rapid movement of so many people from one country to another. They also consider the extent to which the United States is "obligated" to the Southeast Asians who have come here. Working in small groups, students then compare other statistics – either the Cubans of the early 1960s, or the Hungarians of the late 1950s.

Activity 12, Where Would You Go? In this slide activity students are asked to consider whether or not they would like to move to each of 10 locations throughout the world. They then consider reasons for feeling as they do. In addition, they speculate about the problems they would face in adjusting to a new home. The summary discussion helps them to relate this exercise to the experiences of immigrants to the United States in the past.

Activity 13, Migration within the United States. In this activity each student reads one of several different case studies of migration within the United States. A work sheet and discussion then help them to compare these different cases. One of the case studies illustrates that the movement of one group of people often is accompanied by the displacement of another. Students are encouraged to consider the value implications of such displacements. They also compare the experiences of internal migrants with immigrants. The story of the experience of ethnic group migrants moving from rural to urban areas helps illustrate some problems of adjustment in internal migrations.

Activity 14: The Stages of Migration. Students are provided with several photographs of people during phases of the migration process. Working in small groups, the students sequence these photos and then prepare a short narrative describing the process from beginning to end.

Activity 15, Setting Immigration Policy. This activity gets students involved in an immigration issue in the United States. Students research a government policy or analyze an immigration case. Then students act on their findings using democratic procedures for citizen involvement.

The following lesson on the concept of migration is based upon Activity 3 on page 103.

Lesson Title: What Would You Do?

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be better able to list and discuss factors influencing migration and make and justify a decision based on limited information.

Materials: Four sets of eight evidence cards and migration-stimulating conditions response sheets. Evidence card text can be photocopied from page 105 and 106 and pasted on index cards.

Estimated teaching time: One class period.

Guidelines: Divide the class into several small groups of no more than five students. Then give each group a set of cards, either labeled Conditions in Country B, C or D. Added to each of these sets (B, C or D) are four cards describing conditions in the United States during the mid-19th century. These cards (describing U. S. conditions) are the same for each set. Cards labeled B, C or D represent possible conditions in another country at the same time.

Have each group mix the eight cards they have been given and then draw five of those cards at random. On the response sheet each group then classifies the cards as showing conditions favoring migration or discouraging migration. The groups then should decide what they would do – migrate or stay – under those conditions. After they have indicated their decision, group members should provide reasons for their decision. Response sheets then are collected and posted.

Teachers may want to follow the same procedure two more times. In the second experience, one of the groups that desires to move to the United States is told it can't go. Then, after the round is complete, the teacher explains that some countries have been excluded from entering the United States. A third round could be used to introduce restriction by job skill, etc.

The following questions then are discussed.

- What conditions were most favorable to migration?
- Did conditions in the United States or in the country of origin have a greater influence on migration?
- Did some country – B, C or D – have conditions which made it more likely for people to emigrate? If so, what were they?
- How does this help to explain why large numbers of immigrants came to the United States from some countries, while very few came from other countries?
- If you wanted to go to the United States but were not allowed to, how did you feel?
- What solutions did the group provide to deal with the dilemma?

The following are to be used to build sets of evidence cards for use in this lesson (Activity 3).

Conditions in the United States

Three of your uncles have moved to America. They have sent you letters telling about their lives in the New World. If you ever move to the United States, you may stay with one of them until you find a job and a place to live.

Conditions in the United States

There is plenty of open land in the United States. The government will give you the land for free if you live on it for a certain length of time. Most of this land is very good for farming.

Conditions in the United States

Last year gold was found in part of the United States. You have heard people say that the streets of the towns are paved with gold. It sounds like it is easy for anyone to get rich in America.

Conditions in the United States

A Civil War has begun in the United States. The Northern states are fighting the Southern states. Many people are being killed and much land and property is being destroyed.

Conditions in Country B

You are getting old. All of your children are grown. They all are married. You have lived in this country all of your life. Although you don't own your own land, the landowner you work for is a kind man. He treats you fairly.

Conditions in Country B

Lately, the economy of your country has been facing difficulties. Many factories have had to close down. You and most of your friends are out of work. All of your savings have been used up. You do not know how you will feed your family from now on.

Conditions in Country B

A new government has taken over in your country. It has increased everyone's freedom. New schools are being built. Working conditions are being improved. And people are allowed to practice any religion they choose.

Conditions in Country B

Few people in your country are well-off. Most of the people work on farms for large landowners. They must pay high rents and they must work very hard. The landowners are very rich. But most people who work for them are very poor.

Conditions in Country C

In the last few years, conditions have been very good for farming. You have grown bumper crops every year. You now own a small farm and have just finished building a small house.

Conditions in Country C

Some people from America have come to your town. They work for mining companies. These people say their companies are looking for people to work for them. They even will help pay for transportation to America.

Conditions in Country C

A couple of months ago some rebels started a revolution in your country. The government is bitterly fighting back. You do not like the government, but you are not sure what the rebels will do if they win. You are especially afraid of being forced to fight in the war.

Conditions in Country C

The rulers of the country you live in treat people of your religion very poorly. Your rights are limited. Laws force you to pay high taxes, live in certain places and serve in the army.

Conditions in Country D

Many new industries have started in your country. These new industries have created many new jobs. People say these industries will grow fast in the next few years.

Conditions in Country D

The church in your country has imposed very strict rules for the people. Since the government controls the church, everyone must follow the same religious rules.

Conditions in Country D

Last year you inherited a large farm from your grandfather. In the past your grandfather did very well on this farm. He raised good crops and also some livestock.

Conditions in Country D

For two years in a row crops in your country have failed. Your family has been hungry for weeks. You are not sure that you can live through another bad year.

Guiding Principles for Developing a Multicultural Curriculum

The following should be considered when making decisions about curriculum change, selection of curriculum materials and development of school policies and procedures:

- The multicultural curriculum should be inclusive, not exclusive, of ethnic groups living in the United States.
- A multicultural curriculum should include experiences and perspectives of groups living within the boundaries of the school community as well as groups living outside the community.
- The multicultural curriculum should help students to view and interpret events, situations and conflict from diverse ethnic perspectives and points of view.
- The multicultural curriculum should help students to understand the totality of the experiences of ethnic groups living in the United States.
- The multicultural curriculum should explore diversity within ethnic groups as well as diversity between different ethnic groups.
- The multicultural curriculum should focus on comparative and participatory approaches encouraging student involvement and action.
- The multicultural curriculum should be intimately tied to major disciplines taught in the school and reflect current trends and perspectives in those disciplines.
- School policies and procedures should foster positive multicultural interactions and understandings among students, teachers, support staff members and administrators.
- Students should have personal contact with students of different cultural backgrounds on a long-term basis in order to be prepared for responsible citizenship in an increasingly multicultural world.

APPENDIX I

INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION RESOURCES

The Instructional Television Service is one way the Connecticut State Department of Education provides equitable access to a wide range of quality materials designed to support instruction in Connecticut schools. The *Instructional Television Schedule and Resource Guide*, published annually by the department, lists programs that are broadcast daily to Connecticut schools, provides information on recording rights and offers suggestions for using the programs of the curriculum. Each year department staff members, in cooperation with representatives of school districts across the state, review current instructional television programs and preview new programs that have not previously been offered in Connecticut.

The social studies programs provided by the Connecticut State Department of Education that are described below are examples of series broadcast by Connecticut Public Television and carried by all cable systems in the state as part of the Instructional Television Service. The current edition of the schedule and resource guide should be checked for program availability and changes.

History

America Past – sixteen 15-minute programs for high school students bring to the classroom dramatic stories in American history. The programs cover the period from Colonial times to the beginning of the Civil War.

Castle – four 15-minute programs for students in Grades 5-10 combine animation and live-action documentary sequences to tell the story of a 13th century Welsh castle.

Cathedral – four 15-minute programs for students in Grades 5-10 bring viewers back in time to 1214, telling 13th century tales of life and death, faith and despair, prosperity and intrigue.

Connecticut Heritage – ten 30-minute programs for secondary students explore early Connecticut history.

The Middle Ages – five 20-minute programs for middle grade students examine the Middle Ages by looking at daily life and events in England.

People of the First Light – seven 30-minute programs for secondary school students examine Native American peoples in southern New England. The series shows how history and tribal traditions of contemporary Indian children and adults are integrated into their daily activities.

Timely Places – 12 programs for secondary school students explore various topics and events of American history in the eastern part of the United States.

Current Issues and Events

Assignment: The World – this weekly 15-minute program for middle grade students uses the electronic feed of Vis News from around the world.

International Studies

Across Cultures – thirteen 15-minute programs appropriate for middle grade students help young people see three different cultures through the eyes of the people who are part of the cultures, and to understand the concepts of interdependence and global culture. The three cultural groups presented are the urban people of Osaka, Japan; the Island Tarahumara people of Caborachic, Mexico; and the Baoule village people of the Ivory Coast.

Economics

Common Cents – ten 15-minute programs for primary grade students show how people are economically interdependent. A variety of resources and techniques, including puppets, actors and actresses, animation, music and film, are used to introduce and reinforce basic economic concepts.

Econ and Me – five 15-minute programs for primary students, one for each of five economic concepts covered: scarcity, opportunity cost, consumption, production and interdependence.

Give and Take – twelve 15-minute programs for high school students dramatize problem-solving situations that show students how basic economic concepts relate to their daily lives.

Trade-offs – fifteen 20-minute programs for middle grade students, designed for students to make economic decisions that involve both costs and benefits to themselves and society.

Understanding Taxes – nine 15-minute programs for high school students examine the American tax system and the economics of taxation.

Government and Citizenship

Equal Justice Under Law – six 30-minute programs for high school students examine landmark Supreme Court decisions that tested our young Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

This Honorable Court – four 30-minute programs for secondary students offer a behind-the-scenes look at the Supreme Court by examining the process and debate in deciding a case.

Making Government Work – twelve 30-minute programs for high school students dramatize the government process. Interviews with government officials help to prepare students for participation in a democratic society.

The U.S. Constitution – six 30-minute programs for secondary students examine the Constitution in a documentary format, identifying a constitutional theme and citing pertinent sections of the Constitution. Dramatic episodes follow, showing young people involved in a related contemporary situation.

Geography

Finding Our Way – sixteen 15-minute programs for middle grade students introduce map and globe skills.

Geography Skills – twelve 10-minute programs for Grades 7-9 use computer animation to introduce physical geography.

Geography in U.S. History – ten 20-minute programs for high school students use geographic and historical themes to introduce geographic perspectives to historical topics.

Global Geography – ten 15-minute programs (Spanish version also available) for middle grade students introduce the five themes of geography by using geographic problems to look at regions of the world.

World Geography Series – twelve 20-minute programs for Grades 6-9 examine physical, political and social geography of various regions and countries of the world.

APPENDIX J
A CODE OF ETHICS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROFESSION

The following statement of ethical principles adopted by the National Council for the Social Studies in 1980 continues to be the standard for all social studies professionals. The statement is used with permission.

Principle 1: It is the ethical responsibility of social studies professionals to set forth, maintain, model and safeguard standards of instructional competence suited to the achievement of the broad goals of the social studies.

Principle 2: It is the ethical responsibility of social studies professionals to provide to every student, insofar as possible, the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to function as an effective citizen.

Principle 3: It is the ethical responsibility of social studies professionals to foster the understanding and exercise of the rights guaranteed to all citizens under the Constitution of the United States and of the responsibilities implicit in those rights.

Principle 4: It is the ethical responsibility of social studies professionals to cultivate and maintain an instructional environment in which the free contest of ideas is prized.

Principle 5: It is the ethical responsibility of social studies professionals to adhere to the highest standards of scholarship in the development, production, distribution or use of social studies materials.

Principle 6: It is the ethical responsibility of social studies professionals to concern themselves with the conditions of the school and community with which they are associated.

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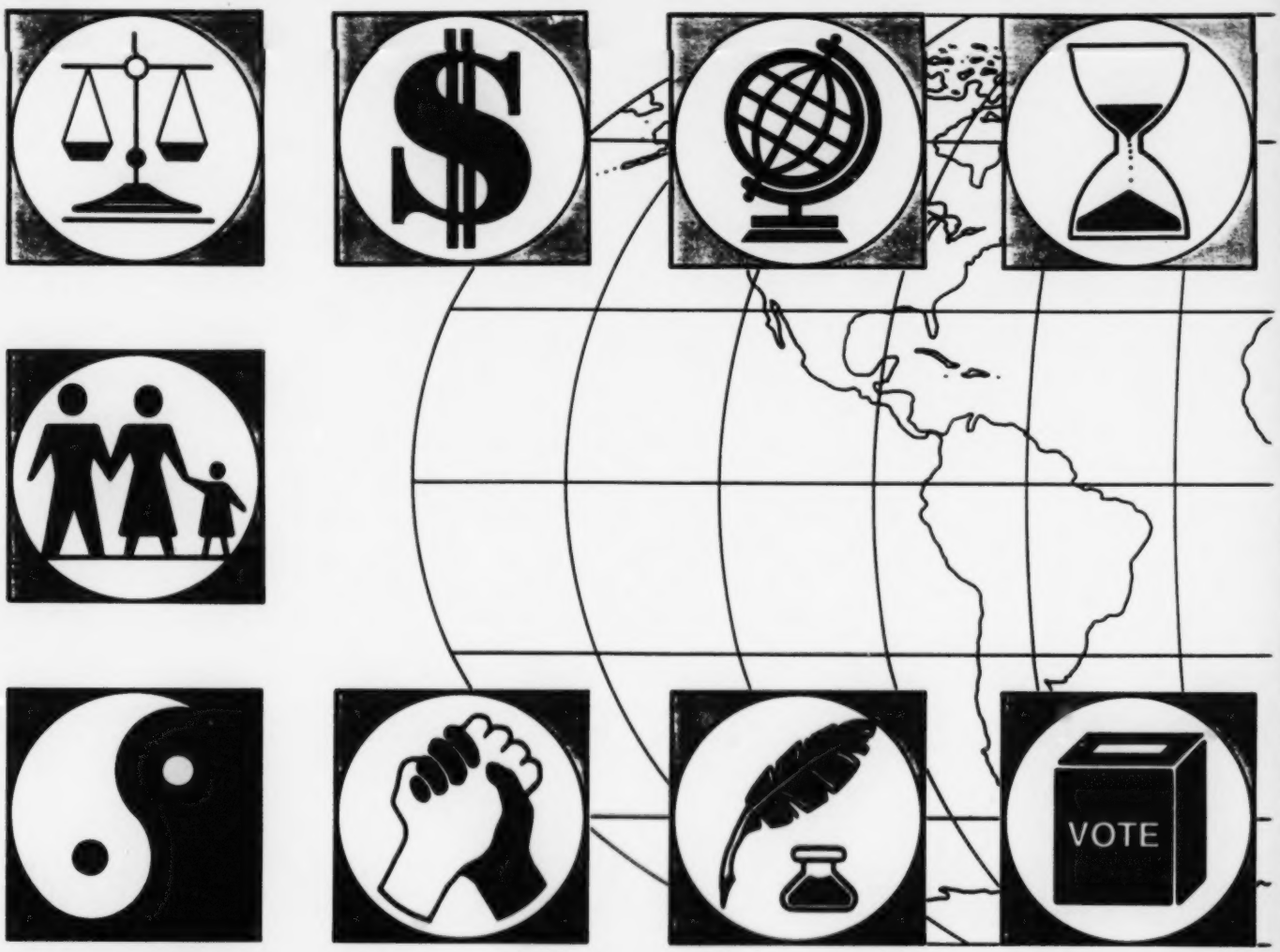
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